The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 19, 1891.

The Week.

LORD SALISBURY'S last despatch in answer to Mr. Blaine on the Bering Sea matter ought to close the controversy. It is a model of cogency, conciseness, and coolness, and might be profitably studied by Mr. Blaine as a rhetorical model, even if its argumentation were less formidable. Lord Salisbury disdains, apparently, to notice the famous St. Helena precedent, but he agrees to submit to arbitration every essential point in dispute; and the neat way in which he extracts these points from Mr. Blaine's confused pleading must delight connoisseurs.

A conspiracy like the New Orleans Mafia is usually, in other countries, put down by some sort of martial law. This is the way the Thugs were got rid of in India, the Moonlighters in Ireland, and the Mafia in Sicily. Martial law, and the quick action of military justice, seem, in fact, the only efficient remedy when the local population is so cowed that it cannot be depended on for jury duty or for testimony as witnesses. The Molly Maguires were, it is true, put down in Pennsylvania by the ordinary action of the criminal courts. But there the surrounding population was not cowed. The Molly Maguires were surrounded by a great American community which was not afraid, and which was determined to get rid of hired assassins. What the New Orleans people could have done by special legislation to get rid of the Italian nuisance by legal means, we do not pretend to know. But, assuredly, all legal resources should have been exhausted before breaking jails open and slaughtering prisoners through the instrumentality of a promiscuous crowd collected in the streets. We have received letters commending the action of the mob, and contrasting the vigor and courage of the prominent citizens who led it and in part composed it, with the indifference, supineness, and cowardice touching municipal government of the corresponding class in this city. We do not print them because we can conceive of no good that can come, in the existing condition of American society, of defending or excusing lawlessness or violence, under any provocation whatever. It is not everywhere, as in New Orleans, that the best citizens have physical force on their side. But we will say that were the courage and fiery indignation of the New Orleans lawyers, merchants, and brokers put behind the law in this city for its assertion and vindication, we should be far better off than we are. Our corresponding class is apt to sneak away and become apologetic, or say, "Well, now," when challenged by the dangerous classes even to a legal and peaceable trial of strength.

For the second time in our history, one of the older States is to elect, at one session of the Legislature, two Senators for full terms of six years each. The first case occurred in Louisiana during 1888, when, under the system of choosing members of the Legislature for four years, the law-makers were called upon to elect not only the successor of Mr. Gibson, whose term was to end in 1889, but of Mr. Eustis, whose time did not run out until March 4, 1891. Mississippi will elect her first Legislature under the new Constitution in November next, and its members will serve until after the election of November, 1895. The term of Senator George will expire in March, 1893, while that of Senator Walthall runs on until March, 1895; but no other Legislature will be chosen until after the latter date, so that the Legislature elected next fall will have to fill both seats. This state of things will recur every twelve years, and it is certainly an anomaly in our system. It is, of course, desirable to have the Senate removed as far as possible from the influence of sudden waves of popular feeling, but the Louisiana and Mississippi plan does not help to secure this result. On the contrary, it might happen that a temporary craze, like that which swept over Kansas last November, would sweep into the Mississippi Capitol next November a Legislature which would give not only the seat that falls vacant in March, 1893, but also the one which is already filled until 1895, to representatives of wild doctrines which the people would repudiate long before 1895.

The Farmers' Alliance has set out to capture both these Mississippi Senatorships for men who will pledge themselves to support the absurd sub-treasury project. But both Mr. George, who will stand for reëlection, and Mr. Walthall, who announces that he will not be a candidate, have come out with letters against this crazy scheme so cogent and convincing that it seems already clear that they will carry the people with them. Mr. George shows the unconstitutionality of the project, and declares his belief that practically the scheme would not prove a benefit to the farmers, but rather a curse, since "it would be very costly, necessitating the employment of many thousands of new officials, and this cost would in the main be paid, as taxes are now paid, by the farmers and laborers of the country." Mr. Lamar's experience showed that the public man in Mississippi who stands by his convictions will find the people standing by him. He refused to obey the instructions of the Legislature to vote for free silver coinage a dozen years ago, went before his constituents for vindication, and was unanimously reëlected. Mr. George promises to reap a similar reward for his courage.

The Republicans of Illinois have covered themselves with something different from glory by abandoning their honored and honorable candidate for Senator, Richard J. Oglesby, and running after a will-o'-the-wisp, or several such, in the persons of Streeter, Moore, Lindley, and what not who inscribe on their banners the initials F. M. B. A. Oglesby was the Republican caucus nominee, and was entitled under party rules and usage to the stanch and united support of the Republican members of the Legislature. But, after voting for him a while, a coterie of "smart fellows" conceived the idea that they might beat Palmer by abandoning their own nominee and voting for one Streeter, a Greenback-Labor agitator of the olden time. This was "changing front in the face of the enemy," and doing so under peculiarly hazardous circumstances, since, in order to elect Streeter, it was necessary to transfer to him every one of their votes. They had 100 in all, and the F. M. B. A. people had 3. It required 103 to elect. Therefore, if there should be one obstinate member, one who believed in sticking to his own text and his own candidate, the manœuvre of changing front in the face of the enemy would fail and most likely bring disaster. It turned out that there were a dozen who could not be driven out of their own camp.

The election of Gen. Palmer determines the political division of the Senate in the Fifty-second Congress. The Legislatures in Florida and California have still to elect, but there is no doubt as to the result in each case—a Democrat in Florida and a Republican in California. This will give the Republicans 47 members and the Opposition 41, the latter including the two Alliance men from Kansas and South Dakota. This would be a Republican majority of six if all of the 47 could be depended upon. But they cannot. Three of them—namely, Paddock of Nebraska, Pettigrew of South Dakota, and Plumb of Kansas—voted against the McKinley Bill last October, and Hansbrough, the new Senator from North Dakota, is committed against all high-tariff measures. It is therefore obvious that the Senate no longer contains a high-tariff majority, and there is every reason to suppose that it may pass bills reducing the tariff on particular articles if the House sends over such measures. Despite the admission of half-a-dozen new States, "the sure Republican majority in the Senate for ten years" which was counted upon only a year ago, has already vanished.

We have had lately, in the form of interviews, the opinions of Senator Peffer and Congressman Simpson of Kansas on the subject of finance. Both these gentlemen are representatives of the Farmers' Alliance, and both have betrayed a fondness for Government paper money rather than for silver. And now comes Congressman Davis of the same State and the same Alliance. His interview on money and finance is published in the Philadelphia *Press*. "We hold," he

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says, "that banks should not be allowed to issue notes. These should be printed and put out by the Government. The tariff should be reduced till there is a deficit in the Treasury, and then greenbacks should be printed and issued to pay all claimants." Being asked whether the notes would be redeemable, he replies: "No; not in metal money. Each bill should bear the legend, say, 'One dollar, receivable for all dues and debts.' This would make it receivable for all taxes and import duties, and legal-tender. This would keep it perpetually at par"—meaning at par with itself, of course. Each note would be worth as much as every other note of the same denomination. This was one of the peculiarities of the French assignats, and of our Continental money, and of the Confederate money. Every dollar was at par with every other dollar, whether of the original issue or of any subsequent issue. The advantages of having a currency always at par are too obvious to require comment.

Congressman Davis has other advanced views on the subject of finance. He would have the Government lend its new legal-tender notes to farmers at 1 per cent. interest. Being asked how the lending should be done, he said:

> "This way: Suppose I owe you $5,000 and accumulated interest on my farm. This new law would direct you to add the interest to the principal and go to the Treasurer of my county and file the mortgage and an abstract of the property and get *a check on the nearest bank* for the entire debt. That would satisfy you. Then the County Treasurer makes a draft on the United States Treasurer for the money, and gets it—in crisp, new bills. That satisfies him. The United States Treasurer accepts the mortgage on the farm (providing it is worth the amount of the mortgage) and sends word to me when the 1 per cent. interest is due. Is not that simple? It is the first news I have had of the transfer of the debt. That ought to suit everybody."

A check on the nearest bank! Good gracious, are we to have banks still? What do we want banks for after the Government has taken in hand the whole business of making and lending money? And what is the use of the mortgage, anyway? Mr. Davis hints that the United States Treasurer is only to pay out his crisp, new bills if the farm is worth the amount of the mortgage. Worth the amount in what? Not in metal money, but in the bills themselves, which are always to be at par with each other. The bills, too, would be at par with the mortgage, the mortgage at par with the bills. Why not make the mortgage legal-tender, and done with it? That would save time and dispense with the services of the bank, and everybody would be as well satisfied as with the other plan, if not better.

The Republicans in the Maine Legislature have defeated the proposed Australian Ballot Law, on the avowed ground that the reform was favored by the Democrats, and that the adoption of a system which allows men to vote their convictions would endanger Republican control of the State. Boutelle of the Bangor *Whig*, who has led the fight against the secret ballot, has based his opposition openly and emphatically on these two grounds: (1) That the Democrats favored the reform, and therefore the Republicans should go against it; (2) that the Democrats favored the reform because they thought a secret ballot would help their party and hurt the Republicans, and that they were entirely right in thinking so. "Let the Republicans Stand Firm," was Boutelle's last appeal in the *Whig* to the Republicans in the Legislature before the vote was taken in the House at Augusta last week, and his position that the proposed reform was a "dangerous scheme" for Republicans to permit was endorsed by the party. More than two-thirds of the Republican members voted against the bill, defeating it by a vote of 74 to 71.

The bill pending at Albany to tax all inheritances over $5,000 has been made the subject of loud objurgation and protest, as though it were *prima facie* an act of spoliation. We are accustomed to consider the estate of every deceased person as the rightful property of his next of kin, and hence to conclude that the State has no more right to help itself to a portion of the property than to seize arbitrarily the earnings of a living person. But the fact historically is that it is the State, and only the State, that enables surviving relatives, even children, to enjoy the possessions of the deceased. Without the State, *i. e.*, organized society, all property is the prey of the strongest, and most especially any property whose owner no longer has need of it. It is the State that enables the owner to make disposition of it after his death. The question whether the State should take some portion of it for its own uses is one of detail, and not of abstract principle. Most civilized communities recognize the fact that the death of the father or mother leaves the family in a worse position than it was before, since it is deprived of the earnings and care that it formerly received, and hence that the estate, so far as concerns the direct heirs, should not be the subject of a special tax. Most communities, New York among the number, consider the property of decedents passing by will or inheritance not in the direct line as property subject to a special tax. The tendency and drift of enlightened opinion at the present day is towards the special taxation of large inheritances both in the direct and the indirect line. Of course, such taxation may be perverted and made an instrument of gross injustice, but it is not to be classed as spoliation *per se*.

Census Office bulletins furnish the number of white and colored pupils respectively enrolled during the census year in the public, private, and parochial schools of five of the Southern States, viz., Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Louisiana. The total population by races has been announced for all these States except South Carolina. The following table shows the number of white and of colored pupils enrolled in each of the States mentioned except South Carolina, the total white and colored population, and the percentage of the total population of each race which the school enrolment constitutes:

States.	Population.		School enrolment.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
Maryland...	824,149	218,004	167,338	37,009
Virginia....	1,014,680	640,857	233,444	123,661
N. Carolina.	1,049,191	567,170	232,427	120,405
Louisiana ..	554,712	562,893	94,417	55,058

States.	Percentage of school enrolment to total population.	
	White.	Colored.
Maryland	20.31	16.98
Virginia	23.01	19.30
North Carolina	22.15	21.23
Louisiana	17.01	9.78

As was to be expected, a larger percentage of the white than of the negro population is at school in each of these States. In North Carolina the difference between the percentages of the two races at school is apparently but trifling, and it is not very great in either Maryland or Virginia. It must be borne in mind, however, that because of its heavy birth and death-rates it is probable that a larger proportion of the negro than of the white population is within the school age, and that consequently these differences against the blacks are larger than they seem to be. But, after all proper allowance is made on the score just mentioned, the comparison for the States of Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina is eminently satisfactory. Not so much can be said for Louisiana, in which State proportionately but little more than half as many negroes as white children are at school. While these figures show that there is still much to be accomplished in Louisiana, the fact that the public-school enrolment of the State has in the last ten years increased 53.52 per cent., as against an increase of population of but 19.01 per cent., shows that great progress is being made in the right direction.

Two letters in the *Tradesman*, one from Youngstown and the other from Cleveland, Ohio, give particulars of the shut-down of iron furnaces in the Mahoning and Shenango Valleys, caused by the competition of Southern iron. Of a total of fifteen stacks in the Mahoning Valley only three are now active. The restriction of the output amounts to 5,000 tons of pig-iron per day. The number of workmen idle is estimated at 2,000, which is much smaller than might be supposed, considering the great curtailment of production. The shipment of Lake Superior ore is already cut down one-third, and a further reduction is expected. Vessel freights must necessarily be reduced. The causes of this serious revolution in the iron trade are stated by Mr. Runyan, of the firm of Runyan, Stubbs & Mack of Cleveland, thus:

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"They [the South] have their ore, coke, and limestone right at their doors, which is an ideal condition. Their investment in these lands, owing to the primary cheapness, is not great, labor is cheap, and, greatest of all, the furnaces in the South are greatly favored by the railroads. On the other hand, take the Mahoning Valley furnaces. The ore must be dug out of the very bowels of the earth, brought up to the surface, and loaded on cars. It is hauled to the lakes and dumped in vessels, transported several hundred miles, then shovelled out of the vessels on to docks, and from the docks to the cars, and carried another hundred miles or more to the furnaces."

This is no new tale. On the contrary, it has been reported a hundred times since the close of the war, but it was not believed until the iron actually came. How to meet this competition, which no McKinley Bill can shut out, is a serious problem. The writer says that in order to compete with the Southern product, the Ohio furnaces must be able to sell mill iron at Cleveland for $12 per ton. The price of Scotch pig at Glasgow at last accounts was $11.18 per ton, and of Middlesbrough pig in the Cleveland district about $10. It would seem, therefore, that a duty of $6.72 per ton was not of much use except to deprive the New England manufacturers of the cheapest raw material within their reach. In all the discussions of the Southern iron question, we have nowhere met the suggestion that, when the Southerners have crushed out Northern competition, they will put up their prices and extort any sums they please from consumers. Only foreigners do that.

The money-seeking manifesto from Parnell will, we trust, meet with the response it deserves from such of the American-Irish as have any money to spare for Irish needs. To subscribe for the maintenance of Parnell's agitation now would justify the most violent charges ever brought against their intelligence. There is no view of Parnell's position which now warrants his remaining in the field. No matter how unjustly he may have been treated, either by Gladstone or by his own Irish colleagues, his one duty to Ireland is to get out of sight. The fact that he has been ill-used does not authorize him to go on wrecking the home-rule movement. Every attack he makes on the other Home-Rulers helps to disgust the civilized world with the Irish cause, and satisfy foreign observers of its hopelessness. According to his own account, the only honest and sensible men connected with the cause are himself and a few personal followers of the kind he has sent here to raise money. But if this were true, what rational man would care to see Ireland a self-governing country? If this be not true, what a spectacle of effrontery he presents. All money given to him will be used as directly to discredit home rule as if it were given to the Tory electioneering fund, and far more efficiently. In fact, there is abundant reason for believing that Parnell is now getting all the help from the Ministry he can get privately and indirectly.

The People's Palace in East London has entered upon a new phase of its existence, which is likely to be its last, unless radical measures to mend matters are taken, and that speedily. It has now come to light that the Palace is heavily burdened with debt, and is on the verge of bankruptcy. For the last two years there has been a large deficit when accounts have been balanced. Most of the original endowment was spent in buying land and putting up the present buildings; the grants of the Charity Commissioners and the Drapers' Company have not been sufficient to meet expenses. Perhaps the most disheartening fact of all is that, despite the almost lavish expenditure which now threatens financial ruin as its result, the Palace has failed signally to accomplish the work for which it was originally intended. Its real object, as it was understood in the beginning, was to contribute to the amusement and recreation of the genuine working classes of the East End. Almost three years ago our London correspondent pointed out its tendency to substitute instruction for amusement, and to appeal to an entirely different class of people. And this is exactly what has happened. Even Sir Edmund Hay Currie has just admitted that there is a chance of the Palace being absorbed by the class who are quite able to provide themselves with amusements at their own cost, and that absorption appears to have been already brought about. The fees, Sir Edmund suggests, have something to do with this—a point upon which our correspondent dwelt in his paper on the subject. A fee of admission, to class or show, of even a penny is beyond the means of a man who has to support a family on a pound or thirty shillings a week. But it is in the supremacy given to instruction that the Palace has gone so hopelessly astray. The monkey and dog and poultry and cat shows have been declared responsible for the present financial crisis; but amusements are all too few and far between. "Utility flourishes. Shorthand and bookkeeping thrive," the London critics of the institution are now saying; and something of the present character of the Palace is explained by the fact that, at the much-lauded Sunday concerts, the people have taken to singing hymns. It is boasted as proof of popularity that 3,000,000 attendances have been registered during the first three years of the Palace's existence; but it must be remembered that every one who enters passes through the turnstile—the thousands who go through curiosity as well as members; and hence this is no criterion of the regular attendance. Despite the present financial straits, many new building enterprises are being actively pushed on the Palace grounds.

Unless all signs fail, Brazil is preparing to run the same mad course of speculation and inflation of the currency that played havoc with the Argentine Republic and Uruguay. The issues of paper money go leaping up, month by month, the total outstanding at the end of the last year being stated at $300,000,000 for the national banks and $85,000,000 for the Government. This paper currency is inconvertible, if we may believe the startling assertion of the *Jornal do Commercio*, which says that the Minister of Finance has used the gold reserve to pay off the domestic loan of 1889. Meanwhile, speculation is demanding more and more paper, and is getting about $15,000,000 a month. New corporation and investment companies are springing up like mushrooms. In 1890 over 300 were chartered with a nominal capital of $755,000,000, while in the month of January alone, this year, sixty-three new ones were started with a capital of $310,000,000. The fever that raged in Buenos Ayres and Montevideo until it had nothing left to feed upon, is now at its height in Rio. Vast enterprises are afoot everywhere, their promoters are plunging into the wildest luxury, and everything is rose-colored. No wonder that the clear-eyed *Économiste Français*, which faithfully warned French investors against the Lesseps madness, is telling the owners of the $100,000,000 of French capital in Brazil that their investments are perilous. Luckily, the Government itself does not appear to be so loaded down with debt and obligations as was the Argentine. But it may turn out that Celman's personal corruption is to find its counterpart in the career of President Fonseca; he insisted upon putting through a fat contract for improving the harbor of Torres for the benefit of a personal friend, though it cost him the resignation of a part of his Cabinet. The making public of this fact just at the time that the Rothschilds declined to act longer as Brazil's financial agents in Europe, almost brought on a panic.

Politically, Argentine affairs seem to be coming out of their sad tangle. The drift of things now points to the harmonious choice of Gen. Mitre as President. He has already been nominated for the office by a large and representative convention held at Rosario, and gives promise of conciliating in his person the warring factions left over from the revolution of last summer. It is curious to note how the leaders of that movement make no figure at present. With the powerful *Union Civica* back of them they seem to have become entirely merged in the Mitre party. Gen. Mitre himself is a distinguished personage in modern Argentine history, having won an enviable success in military affairs, and conducted an honorable Administration at the time of his former occupancy of the Presidency, and being besides a man of unusual literary attainments. His absence in France at the time of the political outbreak freed him from the necessity of taking any compromising part in those disturbances, and he is now turned to with relief as a man who can unite the quarrelling politicians in his support. We notice an interview with him in the Madrid *Imparcial*, on his way home, in which he takes his election for granted, and promises a liberal administration.

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THE NEW ORLEANS MASSACRE.

THE New Orleans massacre is a horrible illustration of the working of municipal government among us when at its worst. None of our cities is as badly governed as New Orleans is, but there is not one of our larger ones which is not heading in the same direction. It has, more than all the others, been used to violence of all kinds before and since the war. Assassinations and attempts at assassination, street fights, and bloody duels have been constant accompaniments of its politics and of its administration of justice. It has had a local revolution in our own time, in which the State Carpet-bag Government was overthrown, on President Grant's refusing to furnish troops for its protection. Consequently, even the more respectable and sober-minded portion of the community are in a constant state of readiness for remedial violence. When things go very wrong, it is a comparatively easy thing to call an indignation meeting, convert it on the spot into an armed mob, and "execute the people's will" at the muzzle of the pistol and the rifle. Behind such a state of public sentiment the law is always weak, and officials very apt to be corrupt, and ruffians very powerful. The assassination of the Chief of Police last October was undoubtedly the result of the same social conditions which caused the failure of the jury trial and the massacre of the acquitted prisoners in the jail. In such social conditions men's reliance on the law for protection is necessarily small. Somehow or other the known presence of Judge Lynch in a community makes people careless about the character of the judges and juries provided by the Constitution. They are like gluttonous persons who think they have a pill which is a sure cure for indigestion.

The Italian assassins, if there are any left in the city, who murdered or connived at the murder of the Chief of Police, are doubtless terribly awed by what has happened, and so are the jury-fixers and suborners of perjury, and the whole crowd of malefactors, and they will keep out of sight for a year or two. But the seeds of improvement have not been sown. The situation has not been radically or permanently changed for the better, and the prominent citizens who have headed the mob and superintended the shocking scenes in the jail have set an example of lawlessness which has certainly unfitted them for the work of real municipal reform. Yet if any one at this distance could tell a New Orleans reformer how to go to work with advantage, he would have to be wiser than we pretend to be; but it should certainly not be in this way.

For the rest of the country the affair is simple disgrace and embarrassment. Secretary Blaine is now at last placed in a situation in which his capacity in raising a cloud of words will stand him in good stead. Although most of the Italians who have been killed were naturalized citizens of the United States, some were foreigners, and the fact that all are Italians has naturally roused the indignation of the Italian Government and of Italians all over the world. Marquis Rudini will ask for satisfaction of some kind, and under the law of nations is entitled to it, but under our Constitution there is no means of giving it to him. The massacre in New Orleans is an offence against the State law, but the Italian Government has no relations with the State of Louisiana, and, touching crimes against persons or property committed within the State, the Federal Government has no power over the State authorities. In fact, there is an unbroken line of Federal repudiation of responsibility for acts of violence committed against foreigners in the State's jurisdiction, or even for the action of State courts or officials.

In the Macleod case, where a British subject was put on trial in a New York court for murder for acts committed as a soldier in the British service, and of which the British Government assumed the responsibility, Secretary Webster was delivered from a very embarrassing position by the man's acquittal; but Congress promptly passed an act providing for the transfer of all such cases by habeas corpus to the Federal courts. In the case of Baldwin *vs.* Franks, Baldwin was arrested under a United States warrant charging him with conspiring with others "to deprive certain Chinese aliens of the equal protection of the laws and of equal privileges and immunities under the laws"; in other words, to drive them out of the place where they lived and did business. Under section 5519 of the United States Revised Statutes, the court held that although Congress undoubtedly had the power to make this statute cover aliens, it had not done so (Judges Harlan and Field dissenting), and Baldwin was therefore discharged. This is a clear and serious defect in our Federal legislation. As regards the aliens who were killed in New Orleans by the mob, the Federal authorities ought to have the power to prosecute and bring to justice all who participated in the lynching; and until such power is bestowed on them we shall every now and then, when cases of this sort occur, cut a sorry figure before the civilized world. We got off easily touching the Chinese outrages, because the Chinese are patient, barbarous, and far off, and hold life cheap; but the Italians are very different people, and we shall have no small difficulty in meeting the remonstrances which are doubtless now on their way.

THE CENSUS AND THE COLORED POPULATION.

THE Census Office has announced the population by races of the District of Columbia and of each of the old slave States except Mississippi and South Carolina. The following tables show for each census since 1860 the aggregate population by races of the District of Columbia and of the fourteen Southern States, exclusive of the two named, the increase of each race during each decade, and the percentage of that increase:

Date of census.	Population.	
	White.	Colored.
1890	14,495,166	5,504,882
1880	11,707,751	4,844,630
1870	8,793,792	3,678,867
1860	7,452,263	3,365,890

Date of census.	Increase.		Percentage of increase.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
1890	2,787,415	660,252	23.81	13.63
1880	2,913,959	1,165,763	33.13	31.69
1870	1,341,529	312,977	18.00	9.30

If the States of Mississippi and South Carolina are included, the negroes, during the decade from 1870 to 1880, increased somewhat more rapidly than the whites in the South as a whole. In particular States their rate of increase was very much greater. In the last ten years these results of the census of 1880 have been frequently cited to prove that certain sections of the South were in process of Africanization. If the census of 1890 can be trusted, the defects of that of 1870, and not the fecundity of the negro race, were the cause of the apparently great increase in that race revealed by the enumeration of 1880. In every Southern State the official figures for which have been given out, the whites have during the last decade made a larger absolute increase, and in every one except Arkansas and West Virginia a larger relative increase, than have the negroes, as the following table will show:

States.	Increase.		Percentage of inc.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
Alabama	168,611	81,328	25.46	13.55
Arkansas	224,986	100,561	38.03	47.74
Delaware	19,269	2,580	16.04	9.76
Dist. of Colum.	36,346	16,331	30.80	27.40
Georgia	156,556	138,583	19.16	19.11
Florida	81,856	39,988	57.40	31.56
Kentucky	208,347	1,530	15.13	.56
Louisiana	99,758	79,238	21.93	16.38
Maryland	99,456	7,774	13.72	3.70
Missouri	501,642	8,781	24.80	6.04
N. Carolina	181,949	35,893	20.98	6.76
Texas	543,953	99,453	45.43	25.28
Tennessee	194,140	31,149	17.05	7.73
Virginia	133,822	9,241	15.19	1.46
W. Virginia	136,725	7,622	23.07	29.44
Total	2,787,416	660,252	23.81	13.63

The bringing in of colored laborers to work in the mines and on the railroads of West Virginia explains the relatively considerable negro increase there. The negro population is, however, still numerically an unimportant element in the State.

There has been a large negro immigration to Arkansas from almost all of the more Southern States; but as the colored inhabitants today constitute but little more than one-fourth of its population, and as even during the

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last decade the white increase, though relatively less, was absolutely 124,000 more than the negro, there is no probability that the negroes will, in Arkansas, ever outnumber the whites.

In every State, except Georgia, in which the negroes were in 1880 nearly as numerous as the whites, the latter have increased since that year much more rapidly than the former. In Georgia the ratio of growth has been practically the same for the two races; what trifling difference there was, was in favor of the whites. In all of the more northern Southern States, except West Virginia, the ratio of the colored increase has been very small. Indeed, in Kentucky, Virginia, and Maryland the negro population has, practically speaking, remained stationary in point of numbers, while in Delaware, Missouri, North Carolina, and Tennessee the negro increase was less than 10 per cent. It is not impossible that an explanation of this slow growth will be made apparent when the race figures for the old free States are given out. The negro population of California, the only Northern State the race statistics for which are as yet available, nearly doubled during the decade. In Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, and Texas, there was a considerable negro increase, but that of the whites was still greater.

As the censuses of 1870 and of 1880 have shown us, it is not altogether safe to rest too securely on the results deduced from a comparison of the figures of two immediately succeeding census enumerations. It may therefore be worth while to compare the statistics of the eleventh with those of the eighth census, the last taken before the old order of things in the South made place for the new. As the following table, which gives for 1860 and for 1890 the number of negroes in every 10,000 of aggregate population in each of the Southern States, except Mississippi and South Carolina, will show, the negro population of the more northern Southern States is proportionately much less numerous than it was thirty years ago, while there has been, except in Texas, very little change in the relative proportions of white and colored inhabitants in the more southern States:

States.	Number of negroes in every 10,000 of total population.	
	1890.	1860.
West Virginia	439	561
Missouri	575	1,003
Kentucky	1,469	2,045
Delaware	1,722	1,927
Maryland	2,091	2,491
Texas	2,204	3,027
Tennessee	2,457	2,550
Arkansas	2,758	2,555
District of Columbia	3,296	1,907
North Carolina	3,505	3,632
Virginia	3,870	4,327
Florida	4,258	4,463
Alabama	4,504	4,540
Georgia	4,701	4,405
Louisiana	5,032	4,949

In Missouri, Kentucky, Maryland, Virginia, and Texas there has been a marked relative negro decrease. A large white immigration to the first and the last-mentioned of these States, and a negro emigration northward from the other three, have been the cause of this great change in the former numerical proportions of the races. In West Virginia, Delaware, Tennessee, North Carolina, Alabama, and Florida the whites have gained since 1860, but not very much. In Louisiana, Arkansas, and Georgia, on the other hand, the negroes have grown somewhat, and in the District of Columbia very much more rapidly than the whites. The great negro increase in the District was, of course, due to the flocking in of negroes during and immediately after the war. During the last decade the white population of the District has grown faster than the black.

In considering the statistics which show the maintenance during the last thirty years of a race equilibrium in the more southern States, it must be borne in mind that the conditions existing in all of these States during a portion, and in some of them during the greater part, of this period were more unfavorable to the increase of the white population than they are likely to be again. If under such circumstances the whites have been able to hold their own, and are now growing more rapidly than the other race, there need, it would seem, be little fear that the Caucasian will ever be relatively less numerous in any considerable portion of the South than he now is.

It is true that if there were no immigration from abroad to swell the numbers of the white race, the negro would probably be able to hold his own. His rate of natural increase is apparently about the same as that of the white man, his greater death-rate being offset by a greater birth-rate. The rate of natural increase for the country as a whole, after deducting the gain by immigration, is 14.40 per cent.; that of the negroes in the States heard from, including California, is 13.72 per cent. This slight difference against the negro will, if it be not materially changed by the statistics of Mississippi and South Carolina, probably be more than offset by the greater number of negroes than whites overlooked by the census enumerators. Whenever, under existing conditions, a Republican Superintendent of the Census uses his patronage wholly or partially for party purposes, the resulting defects in the enumeration will be proportionately more serious in the "black" belts than elsewhere, for in such neighborhoods the Republican workers, from whom the census enumerators will, under such circumstances, be selected, will be of an inferior grade of intelligence to the average petty politicians in other sections. It is possible, but we think not probable, that the census of 1890 may from this cause have failed to include so large a proportion of the negro population as to render doubtful some of the deductions we have drawn from it.

THE WORKING OF THE COPYRIGHT BILL.

THE *Examiner* of this city, the organ of the Baptist denomination, has some observations on the probable working of the Copyright Bill which, coming from a religious journal, deserve some comment. It thinks meanly of the bill, and sneers delicately at those who supported it on grounds of morality, and then remarks:

"It is very evident, nevertheless, that whatever the bill may accomplish, justice to the foreign author is not one of the things. The foreign author is placed by this bill at the absolute mercy of the American publisher. He can only obtain copyright here by accepting whatever terms may be offered. His copyright is valid only if his book is manufactured in this country. No bargaining on his part is, therefore, possible; for if he refuses offered terms, he can get no copyright, and will be in precisely the same case he has been heretofore. American publishers are human, and it is too much to expect of human nature that when the law offers any class of men such an advantage in driving a bargain, the advantage will not be used. With the exception of those few cases in which a great reputation will enable him to make his own terms, the foreign author will be very little benefited by the new privilege formally granted him."

As to this, it is to be observed that the foreign author will be in exactly the same position towards the American publisher as that now occupied by the American author. The American author is now at "the mercy of the American publisher" exactly in the same degree, no more and no less, as the foreign author will be under the new Copyright Bill. Towards the domestic author also American publishers are "human." Towards him also they use all the advantage the law gives them in driving a bargain. The unknown domestic author can only make his copyright of any use to him by accepting whatever terms the American publisher may offer him. The alternative of printing and publishing the book at his own expense is, it is true, open to him, but it will also be open to the unknown foreign author. The distinguished American author has now the benefit of competition between American publishers for the privilege of publishing his book, and a very good benefit it is. The distinguished foreign author will have it also. In fact, the American and English authors will, under the bill, be on exactly the same footing in this market. Their sufferings under the rule of American publishers will be endured in common and their harvests will be reaped in common.

The pecuniary loss which the English author will suffer in being compelled to have his book printed in this country at American rates, will probably be fully met by the use of the plates cast here for the printing of the book in England, because in England the printers enjoy no such protection. The American author who takes out an English copyright will enjoy the same advantage in England. We have freely expressed our opinion of this protective clause in the Act. It is a mean and discreditable provision, but the foreign author will not suffer from it in pocket as much as might appear at first sight.

But the passage in the *Examiner* which most grates on us as coming from a professional moralist is this—for we always like to get

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from religious men the benefit of their religion for the affairs of daily life, as we have shown in discussing the Rev. Dr. Funk's case and the Rev. Wanamaker's:

"But to one thing we may as well make up our minds, and that is to pay more for our books. The moralists tell us that we ought to be willing to do this, because now our books will be 'honestly come by.' Honesty had small part in the passage of a bill that will result in a few years in the formation of a powerful monopoly, in utter disregard of the interests of authors on the one hand and of readers on the other. It requires no special wisdom or gift of prophecy to predict this outcome of the Copyright Bill."

Now, is it possible that this means that "the moralists" are wrong in telling the Christians that they ought to be willing to pay more for a book "honestly come by" than for a stolen book? Is it not true that one of the aims and uses of Christianity is to reconcile people to the expensiveness of honesty, and to make repulsive the cheapness and economy of theft? Why should a Christian man be annoyed by having to pay more for a book to the lawful owner of it than he would have to pay to a man who stole it, any more than by having to pay more for trousers to an honest tailor than to a receiver of stolen clothing?

Surely, also, the *Examiner* does not mean to teach our Baptist brethren that an act which puts a stop to one form of thieving is not to be respected unless we are sure that the motives of all its promoters are high and noble. Hardly any act is passed by any Legislature from which some knavish person may not in some way profit, but this is, or ought to be, for religious men, a small matter, provided that in the main the measure works for righteousness. We have before now compared the protection given to American printers in the Copyright Act to a provision requiring foreigners on our soil to wear American clothing in order to entitle them to the protection of the police and access to the courts of justice. But if it had been our practice to plunder all foreigners landing on our shores, no matter what clothing they wore, assuredly it would be the duty of Christian men to hail with delight a statute which admitted foreigners to civil rights on condition of putting on an American suit as soon as they landed, without inquiring too narrowly into the designs of the American clothing-men who got the bill passed. It is, we admit, a national disgrace to attach any condition at all, except honesty and peaceable behavior, to the stranger's and sojourner's enjoyment of the protection of our laws for his person and property; but it is not by any means such a disgrace as allowing bands of wreckers to wait for him at the wharf and rob him the minute he lands of everything salable among his effects. In other words, the Copyright Bill is a great advance towards justice and fair dealing, and the duty of good citizens towards it now is not depreciation of what it is doing, but insistence on what it has left undone.

CONGRESS AND THE PAN-AMERICAN PROJECTS.

At the time when Mr. Blaine was so carefully guarding the delegates to the International Conference from contact with our Congressmen, a Western member remarked that the Secretary was having a very fine time all by himself, but that when he came to ask Congress to carry out his schemes, he would wish he had recalled the existence of American legislators. A review of the fate that has overtaken those schemes in the Fifty-first Congress will show that the Representative from the West was putting it mildly.

First in order and importance among the recommendations of the Pan-American Congress was the treaty of arbitration. This has been put in the very fore-front of the wonderful achievements of Mr. Blaine, and mentioned with almost tearful emotion by himself and others. If the Senate has ratified that treaty, no account of the fact has been given to the world, and it is safe to say that no scruples about the secrecy of the Senate's action would have prevented the Department of State from trumpeting the news abroad if it actually had been ratified. The important thing is, that this failure to ratify really destroys the whole measure, since one of the provisions of the suggested treaty called for an exchange of ratifications on or before May 1, 1891. With no extra session of the Senate in prospect, the entire treaty will lapse, and the prediction of Minister Romero that the United States themselves would never agree to it will be fulfilled. It would be possible, of course, to secure a general agreement to extend the period within which ratification must be effected; but it would be difficult to explain to other nations the strange dilatoriness of the United States in accepting the work of their own Secretary of State. And it is to be remembered, too, that the other members of the Conference have been as backward as our selves. We believe that only Ecuador and Bolivia have given in an unqualified adherence to the treaty. With all the great Powers of the hemisphere declining to touch it so far, this grand invention to establish a universal American alliance of peace is left dangling in absurd helplessness.

Many other recommendations have been similarly ignored by our Congress. The scheme of international and proportional subsidies to steamships does not appear to have been so much as considered. Probably it was not meant for serious consideration, but only as an additional lift to our own subsidy-seeking lines. The proposed simplification of customs regulations has met with no other comment than the ghastly one of the McKinley Administrative Bill. The charter urged for an international bank has not been granted. The recommendation of the adoption of the metric system was only a good joke anyhow, so far as we were concerned, and its rejection was to have been foreseen. About as jocose was the proposition that we should give in our adherence to the international treaties on copyright, patents, and trade-marks, adopted by the Montevideo Congress of 1888, and that, too, has been quietly ignored. The projected Latin-American Memorial Library in the city of Washington has also failed to appear.

There are left the proposed international railroad and the scheme for a monetary union, or common silver coinage. The former has been accepted, so far as to appropriate money for the initial surveys and appoint civil engineers to act in unison with those named by other countries. This is not a case, however, where it is the first step that costs, and all the immense financial and diplomatic difficulties that beset the project yet remain untouched. The naming of a Commission to study the question of an international silver coinage was regarded at the time as only a way of confessing the insolubility of the problem. If the Congress itself could not come to an agreement, there is no likelihood that the Commission can. And there would still be our own obstinate Congress to encounter, with the great uncertainties of its temper on the whole silver question. Neither of these two recommendations, therefore, can be regarded as more than tentatively accepted; yet their partial endorsement is about all that is left over of the Pan-American Congress.

In a certain sense, these results come simply to emphasize afresh the Platonic and unpractical nature of the entire undertaking. This was perceived as soon as the gathering came together. Of course, a Platonic assemblage may have valuable indirect results, and such the Pan-American Congress undoubtedly had. But its solemn deliberation for months and grave resolutions were, after all, but a simulacrum of practical action. On the other hand, the cool way in which the whole thing has been ignored by our Congress is only another evidence of the narrow views of Congressmen and their absorption in local concerns and the schemes of partisan politics. Speaker Reed's contemptuous allusion to pottering over questions of trade with "a lot of Dagoes" correctly expressed the mental attitude of the average member. Why should they trouble themselves over matters of international interest, which they could not understand, when there were private pensions to be slipped through Congress and all the thimble-rigging connected with public-building bills to be attended to?

SOME LEGAL ASPECTS OF THE FAYERWEATHER CASE.

Now that the Fayerweather will contest has been settled, the will proved, and everybody satisfied, it is proper to call attention to some aspects of the case which are of more than temporary interest. At an early period in English history it was found necessary, for feudal reasons, to enact statutes of mortmain, as they were called, by which the educational and religious corporations of that day were restrained to a considerable extent from acquiring landed property. At that period, it is to be remembered, property in land was about the only kind of property of which the common law took much account, but such is the conservatism of this law that these statutes have continued without material extension or restriction down to a time when personal property has become at least as important as realty. These statutes, we

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believe, were never held applicable outside of the mother-country, and when the American colonies separated from England, they were in position to determine *de novo* their policy in this matter.

It is obvious that the result desired could be attained in either of two ways. Confining our view to testamentary dispositions, it would be equally efficacious to forbid testators giving their property to religious or educational corporations, or to forbid these corporations receiving such gifts. The latter was practically the method adopted in the State of New York, the corporations by their charters being limited in the amount of property which they are capable of taking—a principle which recently received a striking illustration in the case of Cornell University. Hence, although nominally by the statute of wills a testator was not allowed to give his landed property to any corporation, he was really hampered only by the necessity of selecting corporations upon which the Legislature had conferred a sufficient receptive capacity.

In 1860, however, a statute was passed prohibiting any testator having a wife, husband, child, or parent from giving to benevolent corporations, in trust or otherwise, more than one-half of his property. This statute was what confronted Mr. Fayerweather's legal advisers and proposed executors. He seems to have had no relatives whom he cared to enrich, and proposed to leave substantially the whole of his property to various institutions of learning. But he had a wife, and her existence raised an apparently insurmountable legal barrier to the accomplishment of his wishes. In this emergency Mr. Fayerweather's counsel seems, by a most curious repetition of history, to have resorted to one of the "dyverse and sundry ymaginacious subtile invencions and practises" which so greatly excited the ire of the common lawyers against the representatives of learning and religion in their day. These persons, to quote Spence's words, "as one contrivance for evading the laws prohibiting alienations in mortmain, procured lands to be conveyed in fee simple to some friendly hand, upon trust that they and their successors should be permitted to enjoy the profits." Although it is asserted that this trust in the Fayerweather case was not expressed in writing, it scarcely admits of doubt that it existed as a secret instruction, or at least as a tacit understanding between Mr. Fayerweather and his executors. They made themselves apparently the absolute legatees of half his estate, but the gift was unquestionably to them "to the use of" certain corporations forbidden by the law of the State to profit by this bounty.

This contrivance was very soon stopped by statute in England, so far as the ecclesiastical bodies were concerned; but the prohibition of the New York law of 1860, being without penalty, is inoperative unless invoked by some person who would have an interest in case of intestacy. That is to say, the State does not regard the matter as affecting the interests of the community, as was the case in England, but only the interests of the relatives of the decedent, and if they acquiesce the law may be disregarded with impunity. It was undoubtedly supposed by Mr. Fayerweather's counsel and residuary legatee that this acquiescence had been secured, and upon this basis the secret trust was devised. The city of New York, however, was not without lawyers of sufficient acuteness to divine the situation, and to conjecture that it might not be clearly understood by the parties interested, and this conjecture was apparently well founded. These parties withdrew their consent to the probate of the will, and the residuary legatees found themselves, so to speak, between the devil and the deep sea. It became necessary for the counsel of the testator either to confess the trust, and thus wreck the will, or else to make the somewhat awkward admission that he had used his influence with a client *in articulo mortis* to secure for himself a legacy of most preposterous magnitude.

Under these circumstances it is obvious that there was nothing for the executors to do but to surrender upon the best terms that were to be had, and while these were doubtless such as to afford the lawyers for the contestants a satisfactory compensation for their labors, it must be said that the contestants themselves displayed the greatest moderation. In fact, they might not unreasonably claim that their names as well as that of the testator should be engraved upon the memorial tablets which, after the custom of learned institutions towards their benefactors, will doubtless be set up. Should this claim be ignored, it may be apprehended that considerable casuistry will have to be employed by the authorities of these bodies in order adequately to express their indebtedness to those munificent donors, the Fayerweather legatees, who did not postpone their benevolence until they could enjoy their wealth no longer, but hastened to pour it all upon the altar of learning before they had fairly tasted the sweets of acquisition.

Yet, while we may not nowadays, with mediæval scepticism, question the sanctifying effect of the end of gifts to benevolent associations upon the means by which they are obtained, it cannot be denied that a secret trust, the terms of which are not committed to writing, and are known to the trustee alone among living men, is not in all respects the most satisfactory of means. The trustee might peradventure forget some of the conditions of the trust, or he might not always be a person of originally unimpeachable and permanently enduring integrity, or he might possibly be cut off before he could carry out the trust, leaving heirs whose consciences were not affected by a knowledge of its terms. It is true that a court of equity can ransack a secret trust so that if the trustee is perfectly veracious and of sound memory the nature of the trust will be brought to light, but these conditions may not always prevail, and the difficulties in the way of such investigations are very great. Such difficulties, however, would not deter litigants, and it is not inconceivable that some college omitted in the scheme of distribution of the Fayerweather legatees might feel compelled to demand a disclosure of the terms of the trust, upon the claim that it should have been a beneficiary. Nor can it be regarded as absolutely certain that the State would be unable to enforce obedience to its statutes. The O'Hara case, in the ninety-fifth volume of the New York Court of Appeals Reports, contains some suggestive remarks. As Lord Eldon said: "Is the Court to feel for individuals, and not to feel for the whole of its own system, and compel a discovery of frauds that go to the root of its whole system?" Judge Finch, in quoting these words, seems to consider that there is such a thing as "a fraud upon the law" as well as upon human beings:

> "If equity withholds its power, one of two things is accomplished: either the legatee holds the estate beneficially, which is a fraud upon the testatrix and the intended objects of her bounty, or the fund is devoted to unauthorized purposes, in fraud of the law and of the heirs and next of kin. . . . If in the one [case] the fraud grows out of a refusal to perform, which would be the voluntary act of the legatee repudiating his promise, and so an actual fraud, in the other it grows out of the impossibility of performance except in defiance of the public law, which is legally a fraud. In neither event can the legatee honestly hold. . . .
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> "While it is true . . . that our statute does not forbid charitable devises and bequests, it does forbid expressly and imperatively a certain manner of making them. Gifts or transfers made in that manner are prohibited and made void. The principal legatee in this case knew it, and it was distinctly planned between him and the testatrix that her understood and declared purpose, which could not be lawfully carried out by a devise on the face of the will, should be effected by an absolute devise coupled with his honorable obligation to hold and appropriate the property to forbidden uses. An evasion of the law was the very occasion and object of the absolute devise. Without that it could not have been suggested without a fraud upon the testatrix, for if there was no need of it, if no statute was to be avoided or flanked, the very suggestion of an absolute devise was fraudulent. . . . Any devise or bequest of this character is dangerous and indefensible. It exposes testators to the suggestion of unnecessary difficulties as inducements to the artifice of an absolute devise concealing an illegal trust. It exposes the devisee to temptation, and, even when he acts honestly, to severe and unrelenting criticism."

THE EARLIEST WASHINGTONS IN VIRGINIA.

NEW YORK, February 27, 1891.

IN looking over the Washington *excerpta* of the late Col. Joseph L. Chester, by permission of his literary executor (George E. Cokayne, Norroy King of Arms), I came upon a statement that appeared almost incredible, namely, that so early as 1636 a patent was taken out in Virginia by Arthur Washington. I was aware that one of that name had a patent in Virginia in 1701, but the earlier date—a period when the great-grandfather of the President was a baby in Tring or Purleigh—was so startling as to require verification. There now appears little doubt that it is true. The fact has escaped notice through all these generations because the name was erroneously indexed in the land-book (No. 1) at Richmond as Hashington. Fortunately, Mr. Wilson Miles Cary of Baltimore, going through the book page by page, found the record (p. 408) and sent a note of it to Col. Chester. Dr. R. A. Brock, Secretary of the Virginia Historical Society, finds that in other parts of the volume the capitals H and W are hardly distinguishable. I could find no one in this country whose genealogical expe-

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rience could accept "Hashington," and Dr. Garnett of the British Museum writes me, "Hashington certainly seems an impossible name." Dr. Brock kindly made a facsimile for me, and I tried to make it fit Haslington: but the "h" is perfectly formed. And, indeed, to any one acquainted with the exactness of Mr. Wilson Miles Cary, it will be conclusive that, as he tells me, "There was nothing in the character of the writing to make me persistently mistake an H for a W in patents running all the way from 1636 to 1714." For there is a succession of Arthur Washingtons in Virginia, historically traceable as far as 1701, and never genealogically connected with the Westmoreland family in that State.

The record is as follows:

To all to whom these p'sents shall come, I Capt. John West Esq'r Govern'r &c. And &c. Now know yee that I the said Capt. John West Esq'r doe with the consent of the Councell of State accordingly give and grant unto Arthur Washington twoe hundred acres of land situate *lying and being in the Countie of Warwick*-squeake [Warrasqueake?] joyning upon the land of Epaphroditus Lawson Easterly Northwest upon Nansimond river South East into the woods. The said twoe hundred acres of land being due unto him the said Arthur Washington for his owne p'sonall Adventure and by and for the transportation of three p'sons into this Colony whose names are in the records mentioned under this pattent. To have and to hold &c. dated the 23d of december 1636. Ut in alijs.

ARTHUR WASHINGTON. THOMAS MORGAN.
JOHN BANISTER.

This pattent renewed in the name of Gresham Cofeild the 18th July 1640.

Banister is no doubt the same as Bannaster, one or more members of which family were in Virginia in 1637 with William Stone, eleven years later Governor of Maryland.

Mr. Thomas M. Cleeman of Philadelphia communicated to the *N. E. Hist. Gen. Register* for July, 1890, a record of Surry Co., Va., that in November, 1658, John Washington was betrothed to Mary Flood, whom he married, and by whom he had one child, Richard. Col. John, the ancestor of Gen. Washington, is first mentioned in Virginia in 1659 (July). It is probable that the John who married Mary Flood was son of the Arthur of 1636. Richard married Elizabeth, daughter of Arthur Jordan, who died 1698. It has been supposed that in this way the name Arthur came into the family, but it is now certain that the earliest Washington in Virginia was of that name. The Virginia grants to the "Surry Washingtons" were in the names of Arthur (1636), Richard (1682), John and Arthur (1701), Richard (1714). The children of Richard and Elizabeth Jordan were George, Richard, John, William, Thomas, James, Arthur, Elizabeth, Priscilla, Faith, and Mary. The Hon. Joseph Edwin Washington of Tennessee, and Mr. Benjamin Gregory Washington of Isle of Wight Co., Va., are living representatives of the family, from whom I learn that Thomas, Jane, and Lucy are characteristic names of the family, to which may be added their own.

In attempting to place the family in any English race one finds these names puzzling. *There are two great branches of the family*—the Yorkshire and the Northamptonshire branches—so long and persistently separate that no links are known between them except their name and arms. And it happens that in the course of several centuries nearly all of the above names that are found in either are found in both. There does not appear, however, in the Northamptonshire pedigree, any James or Joseph, and only one Richard and one Gregory—the names of younger sons; whereas in the old Yorkshire family these names have persisted, the eldest sons being Richard and James as normally as those of the Northamptonshire line are Lawrence, Robert, and John. The most notable thing is that Arthur, the name of our earliest Virginia Washington, persistent on this side of the Atlantic, is unknown in either branch of the family in England. I have a note of an Arthur Savage, son of Mary Washington Savage, in the early seventeenth century, and of an Arthur Beswick who married a Martha Washington about the same time—both in England—but neither of these could have been honored in the Washington family early enough to bring an Arthur into Virginia in 1636.

There are, however, indications of a connection, possibly early enough, between the Yorkshire families of Washington and Arthur, who dwelt not far apart. In the Public Records Office (Easter, 1700, No. 254) are Chancery proceedings (1696) in a suit of Henry Washington of South Cave *v.* John Arthur of Doncaster. It is alleged by John Arthur that Henry Wash*ington came to him as a poor* lad, and, being the nephew of his wife Katharine—her half-sister's son—they took care of him, and brought him up to his (John Arthur's) own profession, the law. Henry seems to have been with the Arthurs in 1683. John Arthur also appears in a suit (1714) of Richard Washington against the Hon. Sidney Wortley, alias Montague. In all branches of the Washington family in England the custom of repeating family Christian names was adhered to.

There is a tradition in the Surry (Va.) family that they had an ancestor named Lawrence, who was an uncle or granduncle of Gen. Washington. Washington had no such relative of that name; his great-granduncle Lawrence of Rappahannock County had one son, whose name was John, concerning whose descendants the General seems to have been ignorant in 1798. In that year (April 5) he wrote to his half-nephew, Col. Wm. Aug. Washington, "I feel obliged by your endeavours to discover the genealogical descent from Lawrence Washington, the younger brother of our ancestor John." Prof. Chapman Maupin of Maryland, a descendant of Lund Washington, has made out this pedigree: Lawrence's only son John married Mary Townshend (1691); their eldest son John married Miss Massy, and the younger, Townshend, married Elizabeth Lund—all in Virginia. It will be seen, therefore, that the ancestors of the Surry Washingtons could not be in this line. They were in Virginia before Lawrence, who, in England, had only one child, Mary, whom he left there with her grandparents (Jones). The descendants of Lawrence, by his Virginia wife (Joyce Flemming), were numerous. Among them were Col. Bailey Washington of Stafford, Virginia, where some of his many descendants reside, those of his son Col. William Washington, hero of Cowpens, residing in South Carolina. Possibly there was some marriage between the two branches in Virginia, for the father of the Hon. Joseph E. Washington was George Augustine (born 1815). The traditional descent from the General's granduncle may, therefore, have been maternal.

The "Surry Washingtons" use the eagle crest, normal, I believe, in the Yorkshire family. This, again, is not conclusive, for Burke mentions it as a subordinate crest of the Northamptonshire family, whose crest was a raven. The eagle was also used by the General's grandfather, and by himself in one instance (1758). But the Surry family alone have preserved it. This fact, the repetition in Virginia of the names in the main Yorkshire line—Richard, James, Joseph—and the absence at any early date of any Yorkshire or Virginia Lawrence (the most characteristic name of the Northhamptonshire and Westmoreland [Va.] line), point to a Yorkshire origin for our Surry Washingtons. The fact that they have lived in Virginia for two and a half centuries beside the other branch, without any common stem being found by Dr. Brock and other experienced genealogists, corresponds singularly with the similar phenomenon in England. There also the Yorkshire and Northamptonshire branches, growing side by side, have never been united in one pedigree. There, too, a tradition of relationship to the General's ancestors is cherished by descendants of the Yorkshire Washingtons. In the family of Richard Almack, F.S.A., there is preserved a Bible inscribed, "Ann Washington, ye gift of Elinor Washington." "Elizabeth Idoll, her book, 1729." John Idoll, Gent., of South Cave, Yorks., married Anne, daughter of Henry Washington (1719), also of South Cave, as we have seen by his suit with John Arthur. This Henry married Eleanor Harrison (1691) and the Hon. Henry Fairfax married her sister Ann, both being daughters of Richard Harrison of South Cave. A son of this Henry and Ann was William Fairfax, who came to Westmoreland in 1734, and whose daughter married Washington's half-brother Lawrence.

This casts some light on a sentence in Washington's letter to a kinsman of that family, Earl Buchan (1793): "The family of Fairfaxes of Virginia, of whom you speak, are also related to me by several intermarriages before it came to this country (as I am informed), and since." It is plain that the General believed himself to be of the Yorkshire family, since with that alone the Fairfaxes were connected; though, unless Col. John's first wife was a Fairfax, it is not easy to guess the "several intermarriages." In 1790 he wrote to Baron von Washington of Munich, unquestionably of that line: "There can be but little doubt, Sir, of our descending from the same stock." In 1792 Sir Isaac Heard, King of Arms, suggested the Northamptonshire lineage. He answered, "I have often heard others of the family, older than myself, say that our ancestor, who first settled in this country, came from some one of the northern counties of England; but whether from Lancashire, Yorkshire, or one still more northerly, I do not precisely remember." The later letter to Earl Buchan suggests that his impression had returned to Yorkshire. This impression is sufficiently justified if we adopt the no doubt well-considered assertion of Sparks: "John had resided on an estate at South Cave in Yorkshire, which gave rise to an erroneous tradition among his descendants, that their ancestor came from the north of England."

John Washington came to Virginia as early as July of 1659. He brought a wife and two children, and a son was born in September. It is a pretty straight story that he lodged a complaint against the ship's captain for the execution of a passenger, Elizabeth Richardson, as a witch. Mr. F. A. Winder (London *Athenæum*, July 19, 1890) notes that two of the Washingtons had by marriage the name Elizabeth Richardson, one being a grandaunt of the immigrant; but we may reserve our horror at the suggestion. His wife having died, John married the widow Brodhurst, *née* Ann Pope. In 1671 (Oct. 2) John received 560 acres on the Rappahannock for transporting to Virginia William Gerley, Mary Jones, Wm. Grant, George *Gregory*, Grace Langley, Wm. Gray, James Bryant, Thomas Gresham, Martin Gardner, Wm. St. John, Anthony Glover, John Thorpe. Gregory was a name used by the Yorkshire Washingtons. In the Chester

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excerpta (MS.) is noted a discovery of John Ward Dean, Boston, Mass., that there was a family of Wrights at Plowland, near South Cave, where the Rev. Francis Wright died 1655. In Virginia Major Francis Wright married Col. John Washington's daughter (by his first wife) Anne. The Yorkshire pedigree begins with the marriage of Richard Washington to Jane Lund, one of an ancient family at Adwick-le-Street, Yorkshire, not far from South Cave. We find an early intermarriage between the same families in Virginia. And here were those Jordans (Yorkshire), one of whom was Arthur; also, the Harrisons of South Cave, probably ancestors of President Harrison, some of whom appear to have been in Virginia with the earlier Surry Washingtons.

These facts present a balance of probabilities that John Washington was sojourning at South Cave when reports came there from Arthur Washington's family, and perhaps the Jordans and Harrisons, telling of prosperity in Virginia, and that he emigrated about the same time with the Wrights, Lunds, Gregorys, Whitings — all Yorkshire — with whom his family intermarried in Virginia, and among whom he himself may have found his first wife. John was loyal and impecunious enough to emigrate. His will shows no property in England except money, some of which he bequeaths to buy the King's arms for Washington's parish church. I found evidence in the Public Records Office, England, that his money there was for shipments of tobacco: "Feb. 20, 1676. To Coll. John Washington wch hee hath from the account of charges from Westmoreland County, 2000. £80." In June, 1675, Coll. John is credited with £33.9.3, and contra £223.2.0. He and Maj. Allerton are in one instance credited with 12,000 lbs. tobacco. Another entry is: "To Coll. Augustine Warner, £40. To Coll. John Washington, £80. Acct. sent by Robert Beverley, Clk. Assembly. Date April 2, 1677." MONCURE D. CONWAY.

THE REACTION IN JAPAN.

TOKYO, February 12, 1891.

"THAT is the point which decides the welfare of a people: *Which way does it look?* If to any other people, it is not well with them." These words of Emerson's may be called to mind in connection with the reaction which has progressed so rapidly in this country within the last six months. Japan has for twenty years been guided by European standards; the essentials of foreign art, science, industry, and manners were eagerly absorbed, and in the past few years even the non-essentials—velocipedes and waltzing, for instance—became the fads of the day. Now the natural reaction has set in. As English law in the thirteenth century, German literature in the last quarter of the last century, and American thought in the middle of the present century, began to repudiate foreign models and to enter on the process of national development, so Japan is retiring upon itself to assimilate the useful portions of that which it has adopted, and to do what every virile nation must naturally and inevitably do, develop its institutions upon the lines marked out by its own history and temperament.

Some examples will convey an idea of the way in which this attitude is manifesting itself. It is, of course, more marked in particular departments; art, for example, and pure science being as yet scarcely involved. At the present moment one may say that it is a matter of sentiment rather than of judgment, and it may be looked for in almost any quarter. In education, perhaps, the tendency is most notable. The foreign schools in which the staple material is foreign learning have shown (though, of course, not in every case) a decided falling off. In one instance two schools have been amalgamated, one of which a few years ago had 300 pupils, the other 150; now they muster together only 150 or thereabouts. The ranks of the foreign instructors in the Imperial University have been seriously thinned, and their places are being filled by young graduates of promise, and the process has included even the representatives of German science, which has of late been in the highest favor. Parliament has questioned the policy of educating students abroad at the expense of the State, and it is likely that the number of these students will be gradually reduced. The students who are taught here in foreign languages are not found to be so ardent as in former days in the acquisition of the foreign tongue, and the task of conveying such instruction has become correspondingly difficult. In the matter of laws, too, the postponement by Parliament of the operation of the Commercial Code until 1893 is significant. It is a close adaptation of the German code, and its repugnance to the customs of the country was the strong point with its opponents. Parliament is very anxious, too, to know whether it is necessary to maintain so many foreign advisers and superintendents in the Government departments, and the Ministry is placed always in an attitude of defence and explanation, not to say apology.

In religion, too, the reactionary movement is strong. The recent action of the Presbyterian Synod in adopting a national creed of its own (practically the Apostles' Creed, with a short preamble) instead of the Westminster Creed, is but one instance. The delegates would not even accept foreign initiative in drafting their new creed. But, curiously enough, the draft adopted, which they thought emanated from a committee of their own number, was in fact the work of a foreign clergyman. So strong was the feeling on the subject that the Synod refused to retain an article of the constitution permitting foreigners to become members of the Synod by special vote. They quite intended to include the foreign workers, but they objected to any article which even seemed to grant a special privilege to foreigners; and accordingly the word "foreign" was eliminated, and the privilege was left open to any person—though in practice only the foreign workers will receive the benefit of it. This was paralleled by the debate in the Peers over the new weights and measures project. In the course of this it was seriously contended that even if the metric system was in fact adopted, it was derogatory to the national dignity formally to mention the new measures in the statute as "the French metric system." This opinion was advanced repeatedly, and the final vote adopting the objectionable section was only 66 to 37.

Commercial affairs are hardly disturbed by this impulsive patriotism. One reads that the Osaka Mint has decided to use a certain number of home-made crucibles, though the foreign ones are admitted to be of better quality; and some attempts are being made to procure subsidies for the tea and silk export trades, on the plea of retaining in the pockets of citizens the profit of the foreign middleman. But, on the whole, sentiment enters but little into business. There is, however, a slight falling off in woollens and dress goods, due partly to the tendency to return to native costume. One hears, too, of Paris dresses, never worn, which their owners would now like to dispose of privately. The desire to expedite treaty revision had not a little to do with the adoption of foreign dress by the Court, and it is to be hoped that the imperial household will soon see its way to rescinding its regulation.

Of the causes for all this, we may put down as one the natural reawakening of the *pro patria* sentiment, ever a strong one in Japan. The *patria* of Japan was of old the *kuni*, or clan home; now it is the whole land. The affection for the native soil is no longer a divided one: it has but a single object, and it burns the stronger. Parliament's particularly pronounced action is in part accounted for by its desire for economy, and this force naturally expends itself along the line of least resistance. Other causes, too, help to facilitate or retard the expression of the sentiment in question. But it is undoubtedly a popular sentiment—which must be understood with these limitations, that an immense number of people, below in the scale, do not care or think much about the subject, and that, at the other extreme, the Government knows too well the value of its foreign assistants, and is too little swayed by prejudice, to partake really in the movement: in whatever it has done or will do it only obeys what public opinion requires. There is, of course, something of the factitious about it all. The new patriotism serves as a politician's war cry, just as "Jo-i" (Expel the foreigners!) did in the sixties, and just as the Cobden Club gold and Lord Sackville West's letter have done with us.

It is easy to sympathize in the abstract with this feeling. At the same time it must result in retarding Japan's acquisition of adequate expertness in foreign arts and sciences, while it adds serious obstacles to the work of foreign students here, and makes it more than ever difficult to pursue investigations in the numberless attractive themes that clamor for attention. On the other hand, it is stimulating the spirit of self-development. Domestic industry will profit greatly, and the native scholars are turning to their own historical institutions with a truer sense of their value, and with a new zeal which will in the end give us the most valuable results. J. H. W.

TALLEYRAND'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, March 5, 1891.

THE long-expected memoirs of Prince de Talleyrand have appeared at last. Four years before his death, on January 10, 1834, he made his will, and two years afterwards, October 1, 1836, he added to it a declaration which was a kind of short *Apologia pro vita mea*. Looking over his long life (he was then eighty-two years old), he said, with a mixture of solemnity and of pride, that "recalling to himself the numerous acts of his political life (which had been long), he found, in brief, that of all the governments which he had served, there was none from which he had received more than he had given; that he had abandoned none before it had abandoned itself; that he had placed the interests of no party, nor his own interests, nor the interests of his family in the balance with the *true* interests of France, which were not, in his opinion, in opposition to the *true* interests of Europe." After this declaration come some prescriptions relative to the keeping and the publication of his memoirs.

The Duc de Broglie has written a preface in which he gives all the details respecting the various persons who received the memoirs in trust. He has himself been charged with the mission of publishing these memoirs, and no better person could have been found for the purpose. The Duc de Broglie has allowed himself no retrenchment or modification of any

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sort of the text prepared by Talleyrand for publication. The memoirs are divisible into two portions: the first begins with the youth of Talleyrand, and goes as far as 1815, to the close of the Ministry of which he was a member. The Duc de Broglie judges that this part of the memoirs was composed under the Restoration. The two volumes which now appear end with the Congress of Vienna in 1815. The second part of the memoirs begins in 1830, with Talleyrand's embassy to London, and was probably written in 1834. There is therefore a gap of fourteen years.

The public life of Talleyrand is so well known that it was natural that public interest should be especially awakened by the first part of the memoirs. Talleyrand was born in 1754. His father was Lieutenant-General and held office at court. His own education was neglected: "Multiplied cares would then have seemed pedantic; a tenderness too much expressed would have seemed something new and consequently ridiculous. Children then were the heirs of the name and arms. People thought they had done enough for them by arranging for some promotion, places, entails, by marrying them or augmenting their fortune." Talleyrand, as a child, had been confided to a woman in the faubourgs of Paris. She once let him fall from a commode; his foot was broken, the accident was neglected, and for his whole life Talleyrand was lame. He could therefore not enter the army and he was destined for the Church. His grandmother, Mme. de Chalais, who lived in Périgord, seems to have shown him some affection, but he was almost a stranger to his father and mother. He pursued his studies in Paris in the Collége d'Harcourt, and from Paris he was sent to Reims, where his uncle was assistant to the Archbishop. He did not see his parents before his departure. "I am perhaps the only man of distinguished birth and belonging to a numerous and esteemed family who never had, for one week of his life, the happiness of finding himself under the paternal roof." It is no wonder if, under such circumstances, the emotions of youth were never felt by him, and he became unnaturally cold and reserved. After a year spent at Reims, reading the memoirs of Retz, Richelieu, and Ximénès, placed in his hands in order to prepare him for the Church, he spent three years at Saint-Sulpice. He fell in love, in one of the chapels of the church, with a girl who was on the stage; she allowed him to visit her. Her parents had made her an actress against her will; he was a reluctant seminarist. His superiors shut their eyes on this love-affair; they had no reproaches to make to a young seminarist whom they thought destined to the highest position, who might become a cardinal, perhaps a prime minister.

Talleyrand left the seminary at the time of the coronation of Louis XVI. He witnessed this great ceremony, and made, at Reims, the acquaintance of some ladies who remained his friends, the Duchesse de Luynes, the Duchesse de Fitz-James, and the Vicomtesse de Laval. He saw soon afterwards a General Assembly of the clergy: "When the pecuniary interests of the clergy were attacked, the resistance was general." Talleyrand soon perceived all the worldly passions which lurked under the spiritual mask. After the Assembly, he entered the Sorbonne, where he spent two years, much more occupied with his pleasures than with theology, and having at times an ambitious dream before the fine mausoleum of Richelieu. The King gave him the Abbey of Saint-Denis at Reims, which insured him a good revenue; he began to form a good library, and lived in the world chiefly with M. de Choiseul, M. de Narbonne, and others. The life of our abbé was an easy one. His rooms, where his friends could find a breakfast every morning, presented a singular motley of men—the Duc de Lauzun, the Abbé Delille, Mirabeau, Chamfort, Dupont, De Nemours, Rulhière, Choiseul, Louis de Narbonne. Everything was discussed—questions of trade, of administration, of finance; the spirit of the Revolution was already felt. Talleyrand saw the best company of Paris and made visits to his mother.

"She had no pretensions; she only spoke in half-tones; she never uttered a bon-mot—it was too pronounced. Bon-mots are remembered, and she wished only to please and to have what she said forgotten. She inspired me with a great dislike for people who, in order to speak more exactly, employ technical words. I do not believe in the *esprit* or the knowledge of people who do not know equivalents, and who are always making definitions; they owe all they know to their memory, and then they do not know well."

I have transcribed this passage in order to show that Talleyrand, though he did not wish to be considered a writer, knew how to write; he could express very delicate shades of thought, and had a curious fluidity of style.

The life of Talleyrand while he was an abbé was obviously very unedifying. He soon made for himself the reputation of a wit; he became a visitor of Mme. de Montesson, the morganatic wife of the Duc d'Orléans, who had a theatre. "At her theatre, there was for the slightly dissipated clergy a box to which I was admitted by the Archbishop of Toulouse, the Bishop of Rodez, the Archbishop of Rodez, the Bishop of Comminges." In 1775, he was delegated to the Assembly of the Clergy. These Assemblies were periodical and contributed to the public expenses by a "don gratuit" made to the King out of the then enormous revenues of the Church. Talleyrand soon perceived that they would not sacrifice any of their privileges. His mind began to work on questions of finance, which was then assuming a great importance. He gives an amusing account of the state of a society which combined amusement with political criticism, and discussed a literary topic with as much ardor as a financial reform. All ranks were mixed, though the spirit of caste was omnipotent; "cards and *bel esprit* had confounded everything." "I remember," he says, "that at a ball, between two quadrilles, Mme. de Haïl was explaining what was the *domaine d'Occident;* Mme. de Blot had opinions about all the officers of the French Navy; Mme. de Simiane thought that no duties ought to be levied on Virginian tobacco. . . . 'There is much more learning in the Parlement of Rouen than in the Parlement of Paris,' said Mme. de Hénin." The power of what is called Society was immense before the French Revolution, and the powers of the Government had become purely nominal. There was no real statesman in power, no leading mind; in consequence, everybody made plans. The American Revolution had given a great impetus to the spirit of reform, the philosophers had attacked all the ideas of the past, the economists were a new class of philosophers who aimed to change everything in the State; everything was in a state of fermentation and confusion.

Talleyrand seems to have incurred, after the necklace trial, the displeasure of Marie Antoinette by reason of his intimacy with some of the people who had judged the Queen with severity; at any rate, he says that the Queen contrived to deprive him of a Cardinal's hat, which Pope Pius VI. was willing to confer upon him. She invoked the influence of the Court of Vienna against this nomination. It is not impossible that this circumstance may have had something to do with Talleyrand's attitude when the Revolution began.

It is interesting to compare Talleyrand's notes on the state of French society before the Revolution with those, for instance, of Mme. de Genlis and of Gouverneur Morris. We get everywhere the same impression: we see a society in a state of decomposition, a mixture of worldliness with an ignorant preoccupation concerning all sorts of social and political problems, high aspirations and no experience, great hopes without any special direction; the spirit of caste and the rising spirit of equality, contempt of the past and inability to imagine anything new and definite. In the crisis which was produced by the state of the finances, the States-General were considered a kind of panacea; the Opposition also regarded Necker as a saviour. Talleyrand did not feel a great admiration for Necker.

"Perhaps," he says, "in ordinary times he might have done some good; I do not know, and, personally, I do not think so. But what I am sure of is, that in 1788 the King could not have made a worse choice. During a national crisis, to put at the helm a stranger, a *bourgeois* of a little republic, whose religion was not that of the majority of the nation, with mediocre talents, full of himself, surrounded by flatterers, without any consistency and obliged to please the people, was for the King to address himself to a man who could only convoke the States-General and do it out of season."

The States-General were composed of deputations from the three orders of the nation; nobody was of necessity a member of them or could become so without an election. Necker fixed the number of the deputies, and fixed too high a number. Talleyrand thinks that it would have been wiser to form a peerage, similar to the English peerage, out of members of the episcopate and of the old French nobility, and to have a second chamber composed of elected deputies. Two chambers would have formed the elements of a true parliament, and rendered constitutional government possible. A single chamber, divided into three hostile parts, was sure to become very chaotic, and in reality the spirit of the times was such that it might easily have been prophesied that the *Tiers*, the commoners, would soon carry all before them, and sacrifice the interests, not only of the Church and the nobility, but of the Crown. The privileges of the nobility and clergy were monstrous, and the *Tiers* was determined to abolish them. It had shown its true spirit in the famous pamphlet of the Abbé Sieyès, 'Qu'est-ce que le Tiers? Rien. Que doit-il être? Tout.'

A struggle, a death struggle, was imminent: what position was Talleyrand going to take? His great intelligence showed him clearly the dangers of the situation, but he had not enough influence to force on the King and on the three orders the English ideal of constitutional government.

Correspondence.

THE FIFTY-FIRST CONGRESS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If we were to look for the one characteristic which would especially describe the Congress which has just closed, it would be this, that it was wholly given up to legislation for private, local, and party ends, with an almost complete disregard of the interest of the mass of the nation. The McKinley Bill, the Force Bill, the Silver, and Pension, and Subsidy Bills—all these were distinct and

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almost unquestioned jobs, intended to put money and party influence into the hands of individuals. It is true, the national will and conscience were strong enough to kill the Force and Free-Coinage Bills, but this was only a negative upon propositions so monstrous that the Government of Constantinople might have been ashamed of them. Perhaps the one shining exception which proves the rule, and stands almost alone in paying some regard to the national honor and interest, is the International Copyright Bill.

It is unjust to charge this state of things to the individual members, as Congress is perfectly organized to produce it and to produce nothing else. I should be ashamed of such repetition, did I not earnestly desire to fix the attention of your readers upon this circumstance, that the national interest has no representative in Congress. Every man who has voice or vote in either house represents either a State or a district. Everything that he does or says on behalf of his immediate constituents is quite in order. But if he goes out of his way to defend the national interest on any other than party grounds against local or private attacks, he is snubbed and regarded as impertinent. Again, the 300 and odd members in one house and eighty in the other are all precisely equal, without any official or even party leader to look up to. They are like a lot of drunken men who can only stand up by holding on to each other, and even so their condition is so perilous that they keep trying to set up posts for the "end men" to lean against. Does anybody suppose that Mr. Lodge cares two cents about the Force Bill? It is simply an attempt to fling out a banner gaudy enough to attract the support of the so-called national Republican party.

If anything is to be got through Congress, therefore, it is never presented and discussed from a national point of view, but the struggle turns upon securing for its support, by intrigue, persuasion, or worse motives, the greatest number of equal and separate units—a game in which private schemes have an overwhelming advantage—and thus backing them up by a public opinion artificially manufactured through party newspapers, and such combinations as the Farmers' Alliance, the Grand Army, the Knights of Labor, etc. The supposed public demand for free coinage turns out, in the light of the Wisconsin resolutions and the Fanueil Hall meeting, to be, in fact, no public demand at all, while the so-called liberality of pensions to soldiers and sailors is, in fact, a scheme of pension-agents in Washington who want a large sum by way of commissions. It is this kind of management which is converting our large financial surplus into an equally large deficit, if, indeed, anybody knows anything about the matter at all.

It is idle to expect any improvement from a change of men, as under such a system Congress does and will go from bad to worse; and equally idle to expect it from substituting Democrats for Republicans, as the latter have some traditions of organization, even though on bad principles, while the Democrats will be like sheep without a shepherd. The remedy must be sought where the disease is. There should be representatives of the national interest in Congress, who can only be the Cabinet officers. They would be at once leaders, whom independent members could look up to and follow instead of being obliged to stumble for a footing in the meshes of party intrigue, and embodiments of great national questions to excite personal enthusiasm in the mass of public opinion. We have seen what that public opinion could do in the civil war with Lincoln, and Grant, and Sherman at the front. It may speak again in tones of thunder if only it can find competent leaders to direct its energy in civil affairs. G. B.

BOSTON, March 14, 1891.

THE RECESSION OF THE NIAGARA GORGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The recent publication of the Journal of William Maclay, Senator from Pennsylvania in the first session of Congress, brings to light an earlier observation of the recession of the Niagara Gorge than geologists have hitherto had at their command. Before the survey of Prof. Hall in 1842 the only data were local observations. Bakewell, in 1829, was told by "Mr. Forsyth, the proprietor of the Pavilion Hotel on the Canada side, that during his residence of forty years the Falls had receded forty yards" (*Am. Journal of Science*, May, 1857, p. 85). Sir Chas. Lyell, in 1841, estimated the rate of recession at one foot a year. The passage in Maclay's Journal takes back popular observation thirty years, and, so far as any dependence can be placed upon it, confirms the observation of Lyell. It reads as follows:

"February 1st [1790] . . . Mr. Ellicott's accounts of Niagara Falls are amazing indeed. I communicated to him my scheme of an attempt to account for the age of the world, or *at least to fix the period when the water began to cut the ledge of rock over which it falls.* The distance from the present pitch to where the falls originally were is now seven miles. For this space a tremendous channel is cut in a solid limestone rock, in all parts one hundred and fifty feet deep, but near two hundred and fifty at the mouth or part where the attrition began. People who have known the place since Sir William Johnson took possession of it, about thirty years ago, give out that there is an attrition of twenty feet in that time. Now if 20 feet = 30 years = 7 miles or 36,960 feet; answer, 55,440 years."

With that fertile thought anticipating one of the greatest of modern geologists a half century in suggesting the recession of the gorge as a geological chronometer, the keen-witted politician dropped the subject. One feels that Ellicott must have dismissed the scheme as a vagary. Upon turning to Appletons' 'Cyclopædia of American Biography,' to learn more of Mr. Ellicott, the following interesting fact, apparently unknown to all writers on the gorge, was discovered: "He [Ellicott] was selected by Washington in 1789 to survey the land lying between Pennsylvania and Lake Erie, and during that year he made the first accurate measurement of the Niagara River from lake to lake, with the height of the falls and the descent of the rapids." Ellicott's papers would seem to be still in existence, according to the article, and the results of this measurement ought to be accessible either in his printed papers or MSS. Supposing them to be found, then instead of the hitherto known data for calculation, viz., local observation from 1789 to 1829–1842, and surveys from 1842 to 1883, we should have: local observation from 1759–1789, measurement by a skilled engineer in 1789, to be compared with the survey of 1842, and then on as above. In view of the varying conclusions reached by geologists, it is to be hoped that these additional facts may prove of service in the discussion. In connection with this, the popular observation from 1759 to 1789 might be checked by comparison with the careful description of the falls by Kalm, printed in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for January, 1751, the main points of which are quoted by Mr. Garbett (*Nature*, vol. xxxii., p. 244).

Perhaps it is well to state that Mr. C. K. Gilbert of the United States Geological Survey, from the data afforded by recent surveys, estimates the age of the gorge at about 7,000 years; and Prof. G. Frederick Wright, after comparison of the phenomena of the gorge with those of several gorges in northern Ohio, decides in favor of this short estimate as against Lyell's of about 35,000 years. It is hardly necessary to say that the great interest of this question arises from the fact that the cutting of the gorge is generally held to have begun with the retreat of the ice-sheet at the close of the last glacial period. The calmness with which Senator Maclay figured out the age of the gorge at 55,440 years, in 1790, is very remarkable, when one remembers that Hutton's 'Theory of the Earth' was first separately published in 1795; that Buffon, in 1751, was forced by the Theological Faculty of the Sorbonne to say, "I abandon everything in my book respecting the formation of the earth, and, generally, all which may be contrary to the narration of Moses," and that in 1758 the botanist Gesner rejected a theory of the formation of the Apennines on the ground that it required about 80,000 years, or more than ten times the age of the world. EDWARD G. BOURNE.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND,

"*ADVANCIVE.*"

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As you point out in p. 159, col. 1, the ill-formed word named above was used by Washington in 1779 and 1785. But it was in print more than a century earlier, as appears from the subjoined passage, which I came on some time after Dr. Murray had passed the letter A:

"Have, then, the so many magnificent structures of your Colledges been devis'd only to delude the People with a deal of pretty talk not a jot *advancive* of Reason?" Rev. Thomas White, *An Exclusion of Scepticks*, etc. (1665), *Preface*.

The work here quoted is in answer to the Rev. Joseph Glanvill. Its author, a learned, but eccentric, Romish priest, wrote largely in English and in Latin. His name he latinizes as Thomas Albius and Thomas Anglus ex-Albiis East-Saxonum. His native county was Essex. He died in Drury Lane, London, in 1670, at the age of ninety-four.—Your obedient servant, F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 4, 1891.

P. S.—In many instances, an early occurrence, if not the first, of a word which, though now common, is usually supposed to be of very recent origin, is found in some unfrequented corner of oldish literature. The substantive *pervert* was used by the first Earl of Orrery in 1666, and repeatedly by Myles Davies in 1716. Before the days of Lord Shaftesbury, John Evelyn, between 1657 and 1683, has *cult*, which was preceded by *culto* in 1588. *Educational*, as I have shown elsewhere, dates from 1652, at least. *Hygeist* and *physicist* were in print in 1716. And so I might go on; but I shall stop, after noticing the monstrous *bathetic*. This term is generally thought to be Coleridge's; and, quite possibly, Coleridge was not aware that he had been anticipated in venturing it. "Pathetic and *bathetic*" writes, however, the anonymous author of *A Piece of Family Biography* (1799), Vol. III., p. 16, as I have just discovered. And he asks, in a foot-note: "Why not *bathetic* from *bathos*, as well as *pathetic* from *pathos*?" That *pathetic* is not from *pathos* is Dr. Murray's very sufficient answer. F. H.

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Notes.

An Atlas of the State of New York is contemplated by the well-known house of Julius Bien & Co. of this city, who stand at the head of our map-making establishments. It will embrace a general map, county maps, street maps on a large scale of the principal cities, temperature and rainfall maps, etc., with an alphabetical register showing the population at the last census, and a list of post-offices. The price will be $30. The enterprise awaits public encouragement, which can hardly fail.

Harper & Bros. have nearly ready Kobbé's 'New York,' a hand-book for tourists and visitors to the metropolis, on the pattern of Baedeker.

The first of the five volumes of the Talleyrand Memoirs will be issued by the Messrs. Putnam in a few days. Mr. Whitelaw Reid's introduction will be accompanied by a preface by the Duc de Broglie, and besides four portraits there will be some pages of MS. facsimile. The second volume will shortly follow. Notice is given that single volumes may be purchased. The same firm will publish at once, in their "Questions of the Day" series, 'The Question of Copyright,' consisting of the text of the new American law, of the older law, now superseded, of the British law, etc., the International Copyright Convention at Berne, Sept. 5, 1887, and many other important documents, essays, etc., on the general subject.

D. Appleton & Co. announce an anonymous work, 'The Sovereigns and Courts of Europe,' with a recent portrait in each case, engraved on wood.

'Gray Days and Gold,' by the well-known poet and critic William Winter, a companion-book to the 'Shakespeare's England' of the same author, will be published by David Douglas of Edinburgh in his American authors series, in April.

The edition of Sherman's Memoirs for which, as we have already recorded, Mr. Blaine is preparing a contribution in the nature of an appendix, is a cheap one in a single volume, with the imprint of Charles L. Webster & Co.

The Cassell Publishing Co. project a "Blue Library" of select fiction, beginning with Mme. Bazán's 'A Christian Woman,' translated by Rollo Ogden. They have just made arrangements, also, to publish the novels of Mr. J. M. Barrie, beginning with 'A Window in Thrums.' As the publishers of Marie Bashkirtseff's 'Journal,' they offer to receive American contributions towards a proposed monument to this artist in Paris.

Mr. Winfield S. Nevins of the staff of the Boston *Herald* has written for early publication a history of the Salem witchcraft, with some reference to the delusion in other parts of New England two centuries ago.

Ginn & Co. have in press 'The Children's Primer,' by Miss Ellen M. Cyr, and a new (the third) edition of Dr. Keep's 'Essential Uses of the Moods [in Greek and Latin].'

Mérimée's most charming story, 'Colomba,' is about to be brought out by D. C. Heath & Co., with an introduction and notes by Prof. L. A. Fontaine of the University of Mississippi.

The *Globe* Publishing Co. of Atchison, Kan., will begin in April *Howe's Quarterly*, composed of the writings of E. W. Howe, author of 'The Story of a Country Town.' 'An Ante-Mortem Statement' is the title of the first story; 'The Confession of John Whitlock, late Preacher of the Gospel,' of the second (July), etc.

Mr. Edward Robinson's new catalogue of the casts from ancient sculpture in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts will shortly appear, being actually in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Judged from the sample before us, 'The Fishes of North America that Are Caught on Hook and Line' will meet with a hearty welcome from all admirers of the beauties in the waters, and will be an especial delight to anglers. The author, Mr. Wm. C. Harris, editor of the *American Angler*, *Nature's Realm*, etc., is well equipped for the task he undertakes. The book is in folio, and is issued in parts, each to contain a couple of the beautiful life-color portraits with text. The plates are reproduced from oil paintings. It is estimated that an expense of $45,000 will be necessary to place the work on the market. A great deal of encouragement will be needed for an enterprise on such a splendid scale; it will deserve it, and it will be pretty sure to get it. Drawings and text are both so admirable that one dislikes to find fault with either. No doubt the author will gratefully prefer to have his attention directed to a weak point in the nomenclature before it is too late to profit by it. The Rocky Mountain trout is called "*Salmo mykiss*—Jordan"; it is *S. mykiss* (Pall.) Pennant, of 1784. The maskallonge is called "*Lucius masquinongy*—Jordan"; though not indicated, this is probably *Esox masquinongy* Mitchill. Here the generally accepted name of the genus, *Esox* of Artedi and Linné, 1738–66, and of subsequent authors, is set aside for *Lucius* of Klein and Walbaum, 1792, which we do not believe will be accepted for any length of time, if at all. Credit that should go to Pallas for other names is given to Walbaum.

Mr. Charles Ledyard Norton's glossary of 'Political Americanisms' (Longmans) does not rise above the amateurishness of the magazine article of which it is the outgrowth. Nor does it afford a tolerably satisfactory basis for a more perfect structure. The definitions are loose and ill-worded, not seldom incorrect (as when *buncome* is defined as talking for talk's sake); the etymologies are often hazardous, and Webster's improbable derivation of *caucus* is retained, though it has been abandoned by the latest editors of the Dictionary itself; there is too much guessing (as where "it is believed that Andrew Jackson was the first to resort to the pocket veto, in 1830," whereas President Madison resorted to it in the first session of the Twelfth Congress), and too much positiveness (as when Mr. Norton asserts that Burchard's "Rum, Romanism, and Rebellion" turned the election in New York against Blaine); there is no proportion in the amount of detail, nor any sure principle of inclusion; nor has the author's research done much if anything to fix with precision the origin of words and phrases. In short, Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms,' and especially Brown & Strauss's 'Dictionary of American Politics,' with the "noted sayings" gathered together in Stedman & Hutchinson's 'Library of American Literature,' at once make Mr. Norton's work uncalled for (with some trifling exceptions), and reveal by comparison its imperfections.

The damnatory record of Belle Isle, Salisbury, and Andersonville is of the past; but those who suffered or whose friends suffered there will repeat the dreadful story, of which there seems to be no reasonable denial. Asa B. Isham, Henry M. Davidson, and Henry B. Furness, ex-prisoners, have prepared, in three parts, a large volume, 'Prisoners of War and Military Prisons' (Cincinnati: Lyman & Cushing). The book is free from material exaggeration, but is popular rather than precise in tone, and the most valuable section is Mr. Furness's, with copious extracts from Confederate sources. Official records have no undue bias in favor of the enemy. Necessarily cruel as organized conflict is, no darker record of man's inhumanity to man has blotted the history of modern warfare. Much distress, but distress rarely inflicted with deliberation, marked Fort Delaware, Elmira, Point Lookout, and perhaps other Northern prisons; but, mercifully, these did not rival those. Savannah, ever fair and hospitable, has the one redeeming page in that sad history.

Macmillan & Co. have issued the fifth thousand of Walter Pater's 'Marius the Epicurean,' which is now not unhandsomely condensed into a single volume at a reduced price.

In like manner, Spencer Walpole's 'Life of Lord John Russell' takes on a more popular and cheaper form, if still in two volumes, in the edition just issued by Longmans, Green & Co. In both these cases the hand is favored as well as the pocket.

The son of the late President Woolsey has supervised the sixth edition of the well-known 'Introduction to the Study of International Law,' of which the fifth was published a little more than ten years ago. The revision is readily detected by the bracketing of what Mr. Theodore S. Woolsey has added, and it is evident that he has thoroughly scrutinized the original text. As a consequence, the work has been wholly reset, as is always to be desired.

Mr. Lewis Sergeant's 'Government Handbook' (New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co.) is the same author's 'Government Yearbook' of 1888, 1889. He has discovered the impracticability of making an annual of his "record of the forms and methods of government," and will henceforth renew the work only when there is a sufficient accumulation of changes. Statistics, in other words, occupy a subordinate place. Nevertheless, if admitted at all, they should be kept fresh, and yet all those pertaining to the United States remain as in the first issue. The most of them stop at 1887, and there is a guess of 65,000,000 as the total population in 1888, with no allusion to the census of 1890 and its disappointingly low figure of 63,000,000. The addenda to the United States, on "political tendencies," are quite worthless, and close with a page and more of spread-eagleism from Chauncey Depew. There are still no head-lines to the pages, and the new edition has very few signs of life.

Mr. Keltie, on the other hand, in the 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1891 (Macmillan), has availed himself as far as was possible of our latest census returns; and generally his work shows the needful revision. The alternate headlines have been used to indicate the sections under discussion. In this case we are dealing with a live publication, now in its twenty-eighth year.

Germania, whose bound second volume lies before us, appears to have made a substantial success in its line of furnishing entertaining reading in German and of affording practical help in the way of exercises, etc., to students of the language. Its place of publication is not the West, but the East (Manchester, N. H.: A. W. & E. Spanhoofd). We can recommend it as cheap, well printed, and well conducted. It is a monthly periodical, of quarto size, and employs liberally (though not exclusively or mainly) the Roman letter.

From R. H. Tilley, Newport, R. I., we receive the first number of a new quarterly *Magazine of New England History*, "a medium of intercommunication for historical and genealogical students." It will be made up of original and selected articles.

The new Copyright Act is printed in the

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Publishers' Weekly for March 7. The same number contains a good portrait of that estimable publisher, the late John Wiley.

Dr. Alfred Philippson's report of his journey through Northern and Middle Greece fills No. 149 of the *Zeitschrift* of the Berlin Geographical Society. The accompanying map shows the geology of Middle Greece.

The Fuller Collection in the Free Reference Library in King Street, Manchester, has been catalogued as No. 2 of the Occasional Lists. It was, as will be remembered, got together by the late John Eglington Bailey, and relates both to Dr. Thomas Fuller and to other authors of the name of Fuller.

The third report of the Massachusetts Commissioner on the Custody and Condition of the Public Records of Parishes, Towns, and Counties is a document of universal interest and application. Apart from its main object, it illustrates the ease with which legislation becomes a dead letter, and it has a curious chapter on the functions and remuneration of the town clerk which deserves a place among the details of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' Mr. Swan also takes up the question of ink for records, and supplies a chemical analysis of sixty-seven commercial samples that should attract general attention. Finally, he discusses the proper paper for records.

From B. Westermann & Co. comes No. 1 of the first part (English-German) of an 'Encyclopædic English-German and German-English Dictionary,' edited by Prof. Dr. Ed. Muret and (for the second part) Dr. Daniel Sanders. It is "uniform in plan and arrangement with Sachs-Villatte's French-German and German-French Dictionary, giving the pronunciation according to the phonetic system employed in the method of Toussaint-Langenscheidt." Condensation by means of signs, abbreviations, triple columns, and small type is carried very far, but the presswork is clear. For the vocabulary the editor claims unparalleled fulness (in *A* alone 1,671 titles to 1,468 of Murray or 1,312 of the *Century*), but he omits to mention the fact that his scheme admits proper names, *e. g.*, Adams, Ackerman's Hotel, Alabama, Akrokeraunian, Albion, Alemanni, Alexander, etc., etc. He also proclaims his attention to Americanisms, in proof of which we observe under *all* the "Pennsylvania Dutch" usage, "It is all [or *all any more*, as Muret gives it]," meaning that a certain article (as of food for the table) is exhausted. The array of colloquial and idiomatic phrases is very rich. The work deserves the attention of those who aim at a ready understanding of one or other of the two languages, rather than to acquire a literary knowledge.

— More light is thrown upon the respective effects of masculinity and femininity upon the possibility of intellectual attainment by some examinations recently held in England than by a great deal of à-priori discussion. The examinations referred to were held at 142 local centres and at 135 schools, in all parts of the country, and they were taken this year by very nearly ten thousand boys and girls, and by very nearly an equal number of each. The percentage of boys and of girls who passed in the first, second, and third class, respectively, is given in the following table:

	Girls.	Boys.
First class	55	56
Second class	61	42
Third class	76	76

From this it is plain that in the studies of the Third Class the girls are exactly as good as the boys, that in the studies of the First Class they are very nearly as good, and that in the studies of the Second Class they are half as good again. Everybody who is familiar with the theory of probabilities knows that when the numbers dealt with are so large as in this instance, one is absolutely safe in drawing from them the deductions that they seem to lend themselves to. The great superiority of the girls in the Second Class is attributed by the examiners to the fact that in that class particular stress is laid upon foreign languages and upon geography and history. The conclusion to be drawn from these statistics is, then, that in Latin and mathematics the girls and the boys are exactly abreast of each other, and that, in what may be called the humanistic studies, the girls are far superior to the boys. As in England girls are chiefly taught by women and boys by men, the further conclusion may be drawn from these statistics that, unless in the humanistic studies, in which the superiority of the girls may be in part due to superior instruction, there is no difference to be detected between the merits of men and women as teachers. The examiners state that the percentages do not differ markedly this year from other years, although the number examined is much greater than it has ever been before.

—The people of Ohio are to be congratulated on the excellent quality of the first annual report of the third organization of their State Geological Survey, by Prof. Edward Orton. State geologists may well take it as a pattern of clear style. It contains a review of the structure of the State in the light of recent explorations; and here the chief novelty is the announcement that the so-called Cincinnati axis, an ancient uplift of the strata in the Ohio Valley, trends northwest and not northeast, as it has always heretofore been described. Oil and gas in recent years have naturally taken the greatest share of attention, and this report is for the most part concerned with accounts of their formation and exploration. The chapter on the origin and accumulation of petroleum and natural gas presents a broad review of this interesting subject, and makes it most unhappily clear that, at the present rate of consumption, the natural gas cannot last long into the future. The recklessly extravagant use of the gas in factories and even for burning lime, where grosser forms of fuel can be as well employed, is seriously deplored. In Prof. Orton's opinion, the gas should be reserved for domestic use, where its value as a cheap, clean, and convenient fuel is so great. If thus used, its duration might be greatly extended. Other articles by the author on the same subject may be found in the Eighth Annual Report of the United States Geological Survey, and in the Bulletin of the Geological Survey of America. An interesting item concerning the form of leases for oil land, taken from the above report, is of value to Ohio farmers. Instead of following the old custom of leasing entire farms on one-eighth royalty, it is suggested that the leases should be for areas not larger than fifty acres, in which the owner shall retain absolute control of ten acres, where he may drill for himself or lease to other parties. This plan should have been invented and adopted years ago; it would certainly have resulted in a vastly more equitable and healthful distribution of the enormous profits that have accrued from oil production under the ordinary form of leases.

—We can commend the report of Ensign Albert P. Niblack, United States Navy, upon the manners and customs, arts, industries, etc., of the Coast Indians of Southern Alaska and Northern British Columbia, to all who are interested in ethnology, or who, from humanitarian or other motives, may wish to get a good idea of the position which these people have reached in the march of civilization. Summing up, in brief, the results here given, it may be said that, in their social and tribal organization, they do not differ materially from the Indians who lived east of the Mississippi at the date of the discovery. Totemism exists among them, and descent, especially in the more northern tribes, is in the female line. A man's influence depends largely upon his wealth, though this seems to consist not so much in what he has as in what he gives away. Slaves are, or rather were, numerous, and much of the drudgery of life was left to them. Aside from this, the labor necessary to the support of the family was and is equitably divided between the sexes. Women as well as men devote themselves to special pursuits, and the time not employed in procuring food is given to their several occupations. Expert house-carpenters can be found among them, as well as canoe-builders and tanners. Some work in metals, carve in wood, stone, bone, and horn, while others, especially the women, make baskets and weave cloaks and mats of cedar-bark and wool. With the disappearance of the shamans, many of their superstitions are going; and, in spite of the evil effects which contact with the whites at first produces, they are fast adjusting themselves to the new conditions. In a word, considered as a group, they are said to be "capable of almost any rise in the scale of civilization." It is proper to add that Mr. Niblack passed several seasons upon this coast engaged in Government work, and this volume is based upon observations then made and upon the collections in the National Museum. It forms a part of the report of that institution for 1887-'88, and contains 161 pages, 70 plates, 2 charts, and more than 300 illustrations in the text.

—The first number of a new illustrated periodical, *Black and White*, which lately made its appearance in London, contained a bit of literary news that caused a certain ripple of sensation among readers. This was a report that the 'Journal of Marie Bashkirtseff,' which purported to be a transcript from an actual diary taken from an original manuscript, was really a work composed in part by M. André Theuriet, or at any rate very ably edited by him, and changed in the editing. Marie, at various epochs of the story, was set down as being much younger than she really was at the time, and other embellishments were added. Besides this, it was said that M. André Theuriet had never had the whole manuscript of the 'Journal' in his hands, but only certain fragmentary notes, out of which he had produced the book, altering some of them very markedly. This story was published in France, "with all reserves," by the *Temps*, and drew from M. Theuriet the next day a most explicit and formal denial. He says:

"At the request of the family of Marie Bashkirtseff, and in memory of my friend, Bastien-Lepage, and without any other motive, I consented to busy myself with the 'Journal,' with a view to its publication. Heaps of manuscript books were brought to me consisting of the entire text of the 'Journal' since 1873. I read the whole of this manuscript, and, in concert with the family, eliminated from it whatever might prove tedious—repetitions, *enfantillages*, useless descriptions of dress, confidences disagreeable to third persons. After this severe revision the 'Journal' still contained enough matter for

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two volumes, which have been published without one addition or one alteration."

M. Theuriet adds a remark which seems true enough, and even obvious, to wit, that a very slight degree of literary discernment is sufficient to enable any one upon the first reading of the book to make himself quite sure that the whole of it is the work of one hand. Nevertheless, it is well that a prompt and complete denial has been given to the false report.

—The longest article in Parts x. and xi. of the 'Handwörterbuch der Staatswissenschaften' is one of seventy-eight pages on "Beer and the Beer-Tax." The editor is moved to apologize for this inordinate allowance by saying that the author of the article exceeded the space allowed him, but that as so thorough an exposition of the subject is nowhere else to be found, it was thought best to print the article unabridged, and the publishers promise to furnish forty-eight pages additional matter in the next number without extra charge. Along with other interesting information, the article in question contains an instructive table of the beer production of various countries of the world, from which it appears that although formerly Great Britain and Ireland took the lead in this industry, there has been a change in the last two years. In 1888–89 Germany was the largest beer-producing country, brewing 48,354,218 hectolitres; Great Britain and Ireland ranked second, with 46,861,584 hectolitres (28,644,000 barrels of ale-measure); the United States ranked third, with 31,460,978 hectolitres (26,820,953 barrels of beer-measure). When we consider the annual consumption of beer per head of population, the order of precedence is changed. Here Belgium, the country which leads the world in intemperance, stands first, consuming 186 litres per capita; Great Britain and Ireland next, 119½ litres; Germany, as a whole, comes third, 101½ litres; but if we have regard to the separate States, Bavaria would lead the world as a beer-drinking country, the average annual consumption of each man, woman, and child reaching 227 litres, while Würtemberg, with its 159 litres per capita, would come immediately after Belgium. After Germany comes Denmark, 95 litres, and then the United States, 57 litres per head. Second in point of length is the article (of sixty-three pages) on theories of population, more than two-thirds of it being devoted to Malthus. First we have an exposition of Malthus's theory; secondly, an account of his predecessors; then an account of his adherents in the first half of the nineteenth century, considered under two heads, *i. e.*, as adherents in theory and adherents in practice; after that his opponents are taken up under three subdivisions. There follows a similar consideration of opinion in the second half of our century; also, a criticism of Malthus in the light of the actual movement of population in various countries from 1871 to 1880. This learned essay is by Dr. Ludwig Elster, Professor of Political Sciences at Breslau, and one of the four editors of the work. Other interesting titles, which we have space only to mention, are Stock Exchanges, Book-Trade, Whiskey Tax, Inland Commerce, Budgets, Book-keeping, Blind Asylums, etc., etc. There is further the usual number of brief biographies, with full bibliographic details, concerning John Bright, Maurice Block, Lujo Brentano, and other contributors, living and dead, to economic science.

THE DE QUINCEY FAMILY.

De Quincey Memorials: Being Letters and other Records here first published, with Communications from Coleridge, the Wordsworths, Hannah More, Prof. Wilson, and others. Edited, with introduction, notes, and narrative, by Alexander H. Japp, LL.D., F.R.S.E. 2 vols. New York: United States Book Co. 1891.

DR. JAPP is the apologist of De Quincey. The particular attack that these new memorials seemed designed to meet is the doubt of De Quincey's veracity in the autobiographic details which he wove into his works. Some question of the Opium-Eater's truthfulness was early expressed, and latterly Mr. George Saintsbury has printed suspicions of the same sort which lost none of their vexatiousness coming from his pen. Mainly in consequence of this critic's remarks, if one may judge from the constant reference to them, Dr. Japp and the representatives of De Quincey have published in these volumes the family correspondence. The exposure of private affairs, nine-tenths of which have no interest whatever to outsiders, is complete. The interior arrangements, both domestic and financial, are laid open, and in the letters of De Quincey's mother, two sisters, and two brothers every one is made welcome to a not very edifying story.

The family was not a happy one. The mother was unable, apparently, to win the affection of the children, and they on their side were impatient of her discipline. Mrs. De Quincey was a woman of much formal propriety, attached to the Clapham sect in religious and moral sympathy. De Quincey himself draws a vivid picture of her as he remembers *the impression she made on him in early years:*

"Figure to yourself a woman of admirable manners, in fact as much as any person I have ever known distinguished by ladylike tranquillity and repose, and even by self-possession, but also freezing in excess. Austere she was to a degree which fitted her for the lady-president of rebellious nunneries. Rigid in her exactions of duty from those around her, but also firm herself; upright, sternly conscientious, munificent in her charities, pure-minded in so absolute a degree that you would have been tempted to call her 'holy'—she yet could not win hearts by the graciousness of her manner. . . . It is as good as a comedy in my feeling when I call back the characteristic scene which went on every morning of the year. All of us, for some years six, were marched off or carried off to a morning parade in my mother's dressing-room. As the mail-coaches go down daily in London to the inspector of mails, so we rolled out of the nursery at a signal given, and were minutely reviewed in succession. Were the lamps of our equipage clean and bright? Were the springs properly braced? Were the linchpins secured? When this inspection, which was no mere formality, had travelled from the front rank to the rear, when we were pronounced to be in proper trim, or, in the language of the guard, 'all right behind,' we were dismissed, but with two ceremonies that to us were mysterious and allegorical—first, that our hair and faces were sprinkled with lavender water and milk of roses; *secondly, that we received a kiss on the* forehead."

It is not to a son's credit to write thus of his mother; but the tone shows plainly the absence of any warmth of feeling, a perfect coldness and apathy of filial affection. It is added that Mrs. De Quincey taught her children to undervalue themselves so that, says De Quincey, "we held it a point of filial duty to believe ourselves the very scum and refuse of the universe." And, to add the last anecdote that fills out this unfavorable picture, it is related that a servant, on being asked why she did not appeal to the mistress, replied: "Speak to mistress! would I speak to a ghost?"

Notwithstanding all this, it is plain enough that Mrs. De Quincey was a mother devoted to the welfare of her children. She had the disadvantage of having guardians associated with her, one of whom, Dr. Hall, was certainly a most unfortunate choice. Mrs. Baird Smith, one of De Quincey's daughters, thinks that she was self-distrustful and sought advice from her friends, the Clapham people, and that the children felt this interference of strangers as a bar between them and their mother. Whatever was the reason, the result was that both Thomas and Richard ran away and suffered much hardship, and none of the others exhibit any attachment to the mother. On her side, however, we think none can read her letters without being inpressed by her excellent qualities, and in particular, in later years, by her willingness to assist De Quincey and the rest to the utmost of her means. From the time he went to Oxford her purse was used for him, and after he had wasted his inheritance she gave him continually from her funds as much as was possible, though she insisted, with good sense, on keeping the capital intact and settling it on the grandchildren. She certainly lacked tact in appealing to the children, and she spoke her mind freely about their faults, but not so harshly but that a grown person, making allowance for her religious belief, strongly colored with evangelicalism as it was, should have seen and honored the motives and feelings which prompted such criticism. Here is as unfavorable a passage as can be quoted, written on hearing and too readily believing that the education of De Quincey's daughters was being neglected. She offers to pay the school bills, and then goes on as follows:

"I have long been too certain that you were bringing up your sons in idleness, but hoping they were to be made scholars and their minds taught to work, I supposed they would be kept from falling necessarily into profligacy, and live by literature, but I know not where or what now to hope; and, O my son, if they are all brought up in idle ignorance, what but the worst can be expected? I am sure of this, that a Parent with your means who does this is utterly unworthy of children; but still in the present time where must the wages of this bad work fall the heaviest? In this time, bad as it is in many points, to bring up girls in idle ignorance is only to make them victims, not prepared to take their place among industrious people laboring for bread, yet too ignorant to be received elsewhere!! I cannot express my feelings as I ought; I can only proffer my help; and if you can possibly be angry to hear the truth, I too well remember what you said touching my respect for the lowly virtues to be surprised, though not shaken in my well-assured convictions."

This is an extreme instance of fault-finding, and there is nothing in it that any one can object to, except the readiness to believe that De Quincey was so derelict in his parental duty; and it is allowed that as respects the girls there was some color for the censure. Perhaps another passage is not amiss as representing his mother's tone in his boyhood. She writes to him at the Manchester Grammar School as follows:

"I plainly perceive that you have exalted one, and that the most dangerous faculty of the mind, the imagination, over all the rest; but it will desolate your life and hopes, if it be not restrained and brought under religious government; it may then be turned to the use it was assuredly given for, in the pursuit of any profession, and be nobly used in the service of your Maker. In a worldly sense, without you bring this busy, restless power into submission to reason and judgment, you are undone; you are now carried away, wholly blinded by the bewildering light of your fancy, and that you may never see clearer your reading is all of a sort to weaken your mental optics."

These passages serve for illustration of Mrs. De Quincey's character and temperament, but they really do injustice to her since they do not disclose the continual anxiety she felt for her children, and her serviceableness to them

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practically after they grew up. She repelled them by her principles, too narrowly held and too rigidly enforced; she did not win their trust, and appeal to her against what they thought wrong in their school-life appears not merely to have been useless, but to have brought only her strongly expressed displeasure on them as unruly and disobedient. And these errors of conduct cost her their affection. It was a full price to pay, and justice may now be done to her more admirable traits of fidelity, self-sacrifice, and devotion to her parental duty.

Richard was the child who suffered most from the defects in his guardianship. He ran away from school because he was flogged, and, on being returned and flogged for this offence, he ran away a second time, joined a merchant ship as cabin boy, was captured by pirates on the South American coast, escaped and made one of the storming party at Montevideo, and so distinguished himself that he was at once rated a midshipman by the English admiral. He was in the action at Copenhagen, taken prisoner by the Danes, and afterwards exchanged, on which occasion he made himself known to his family. They questioned his identity at first, as he refused to meet them personally, but he afterwards satisfied their doubts, and was in pleasant intercourse with them till he met an early and unknown death in Jamaica on a hunting excursion. He was twice in England during his wanderings and was in want, but he so feared his guardians that he kept himself obscure; nor did he finally disclose himself till he was safely past twenty-one years of age. This persistence of Richard in what must have been a hard and unwelcome life is the strongest proof of the severity and lack of sympathy he felt in his natural friends, and, indeed, his feelings towards his guardians must have amounted to hatred. In his letters he shows a pleasant disposition and the intellectual tastes which characterized the family, and he is altogether the most attractive of them. The letters of the sisters are not of any special interest except as they carry on the family story; and Henry, the last brother, seems to have been rather a weakling.

The literary part of the Memorials is considerable in bulk and separable from the family portion. Its principal feature is the collection of letters from Dorothy Wordsworth to De Quincey. These are admirable, and sufficient in charm and interest to give the volumes permanent value in literature. They describe, in the rapid, natural, and feminine way that belonged to their author's pen, the interior of the Wordsworth household; and as De Quincey was especially interested in the children, they are full of anecdotes and news about the little ones, who were as fond of De Quincey as he of them. Nothing, perhaps, is more childishly delightful than "Johnny's" interpolation into his evening prayer for his "good friends"—"Mr. De Quincey is one of my friends"; but there are several incidents of the sort. There is, of course, much besides the children's affairs—about the De Quincey cottage, then in the furnishing, the Green family lost in the snow, the doings of Coleridge, Wordsworth's verse-writing, Jeffrey's reviews, and especially the Convention of Cintra pamphlet which De Quincey was seeing through the press. Wordsworth was somewhat apprehensive of being prosecuted for this publication, and Dorothy writes:

"William still continues to haunt himself with fancies about Newgate and Dorchester or some other gaol, but as his mind clings to the gloomy, Newgate is his favorite theme. We, however, have no fears; for even if the words be actionable (which I cannot but think they are not), in these times they would not dare to inflict such a punishment."

We should mention also two admirable letters of Wordsworth to De Quincey before meeting him, very characteristic and kind, and a letter of Coleridge to De Quincey when the latter asked repayment of some loans, in which Coleridge appears to advantage in the sincere expression of feelings honorable to him. The correspondence with Prof. Wilson lets more light upon the financial relations of De Quincey with himself, both being borrowers, and exhibits the former's indulgence and friendship under trying circumstances. The correspondence of Lord Altamont abundantly justifies all that De Quincey said of his association with the family, and shows the peer's own character in a pleasant light. Of the other heterogeneous material perhaps nothing needs particular notice except some fragments of Patrick Brontë's poems, not in themselves of any merit.

The net result of this collection is to sustain De Quincey's accuracy of statement, and so far to benefit his reputation. At all points where he is tested by these documents he is found correct. At the same time, the history of the family is so exhibited as to give better opportunities for judging of his position in early life, and of how they discharged their obligations to him after he fell into misfortune. It is perhaps well to have the subject cleared up, though it is not one with which the public has much concern. It does not appear to us that, *all things considered, he was illiberally treated*. He took his career into his own hands with more or less excuse, but he did not prosper in the undertaking. As soon as he came into his inheritance, he used it, in part generously, but altogether foolishly, and soon it was gone. He wrote a long and minute history of this worldly failure, and in it he discusses his hopes and the reasons of his various decisions. One passage illustrates his estimate of himself:

"I hoped, and have every year hoped with better grounds, that (if I should be blessed with life sufficient), I should accomplish a great revolution in the intellectual condition of the world. That I should, both as one cause and one effect of that revolution, place education upon a new footing throughout all civilized nations, was but one part of this revolution; it was also but a part (though it may seem singly more than enough for a whole) to be the first founder of true philosophy; and it was no more than a part that I hoped to be the reëstablisher in England (with great accessions) of mathematics."

This was apparently written in 1818, in De Quincey's thirty-third year. That he formed such hopes, and retained them so long, shows the lack of judgment with respect to himself and his own life which characterized him. He had already fallen under the opium habit. He excused himself from ordinary labor in the professions on the ground of these great aims, and the fact was that most of what he really accomplished was piecemeal work done for the magazines to get money. His mother had about £13,000, which she determined to hand down to her grandchildren, *i. e.*, De Quincey's children, but she assisted him out of the income; and in this her decision must commend itself to a practical mind. His uncle in India also assisted him at times, but, after his retirement on a reduced allowance of perhaps £700 a year, seems to have found that sum no more than sufficient for his bachelor tastes. It cannot be made out that De Quincey did not receive as much from the family estate as was fairly to be given to him. The reproach that they were indifferent to his welfare and practically deserted him has no foundation in the light of these Memorials. Altogether, the story seems more honorable to his mother than to himself, in substance, though she cannot be wholly freed from responsibility for errors of judgment, and for the cold demeanor in early days which made the youth of the boys so unhappy both in itself and in its results.

ANTIQUATED ENGLISH.

A Select Glossary of English Words used formerly in Senses different from their present. By Richard Chevenix Trench, D.D., Archbishop. Seventh edition. Revised by Rev. A. L. Mayhew, M.A. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co. 1890.

A Select Glossary of Bible Words; also, a Glossary of Important Words and Phrases in the Prayer Book. By Rev. A. L. Mayhew, M.A., Chaplain of Wadham College, Oxford. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. 1890.

It was but seldom that Dr. Trench succeeded in rising above a humble linguistic plane; and he reached, at the highest, only a popular mediocrity in the trifling book now reprinted. Yet, so far as regards England, the book has proved fortunate, owing to circumstances quite apart from its intrinsic worth,—circumstances in default of which the first impression of it would, in all probability, have been also the last. For who can doubt that, at the cost of no more trouble than skilful use of a dictionary like Johnson's or Richardson's, a compilation of the same stamp, and in no wise inferior, could have been executed without difficulty? That it was not forestalled may, therefore, appear singular. Any forestalment of it, at least by other than a writer of some name, must, however, have failed of acceptance; nor would it have fared differently with the present performance, but that its author, by having already discoursed on our language in a way to attract attention, had seemed to give promise of merit in what farther ventures he might undertake as a verbarian. Characterized strictly, it is, in fact, hardly more than a collection of illustrated jottings; of interest, doubtless, to such as, by reason of a beneficial perusal of Dr. Trench's earlier manuals, are preresolved to extract utility from it, but of very *slight interest otherwise*. To whomever it concerns, it chiefly affords proof that its author had dipped, with his wits about him, into a moderate number of older writers; a revelation of no particular importance, we take it, save to his friends and pupillary admirers. And, in saying thus much, we almost complete an appraisal of it. While offering but a minimum of new facts to even an ordinarily thorough student of English literature, its details, though conned ever so diligently by any one else, are very unlikely to effect a serviceable lodgment in the memory. Its practical value is, accordingly, to be rated as of the smallest.

For a person professing to investigate the history of words, Dr. Trench was, at one time or other, capable of deliverances indicating a strangely imperfect acquaintance with literature, a ludicrous precipitance of judgment, and other equally discrediting singularities. For instance, he could speak of *educational* as having been, between 1830 and 1840, "an offensive, or, to say the best, a very dubious, novelty in the English language"; an oracle, by the by, only half intelligible. As to *starvation*, so astonishing was his heedlessness of historical verity that he stigmatized it as "an Americanism." Again, treating of *topsy-turvy*, 'there is," he asserts, "no doubt of the fact, that it is a corruption of *topside the other way*." And similarly wild conclusions of

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his are far from being infrequent. Indeed, considering that he tacitly laid claim to both wide and exact scholarship, the superficialness of his inquiries, his groundless pronouncements, and his headlong conjectures are quite beyond all reasonable expectation.

Of everything of this kind Mr. Mayhew, having profited by the guidance of a host of philological experts, is fully aware. But how can he be justified, as editor, in identifying himself, in the manner he has done, with the author he has reproduced? Think as one may of his free-handling, yet his frankness is commendable. For he tells us: "In the present edition, the 'Select Glossary' has been carefully revised, and a few of the articles have been rewritten." The articles here spoken of as "rewritten" are, to be sure, enclosed in square brackets; but, since additions or insertions obviously editorial, like those under "flirt," "ought," "sad," "trivial," etc., are in no way marked as such, how is one readily to discriminate the teachings of Dr. Trench's reviser from those of Dr. Trench himself? Besides this, where we are offered "rewritten" articles, the articles for which they are substituted are quietly displaced. The heretic Aerius was satisfied with equalizing episcopal authority and presbyteral. But now we have a step forward, and one in keeping with the spirit of a progressive age, in that the former rank of authority is postponed to the latter. Would not Mr. Mayhew do prudently in being more cautious?

"This little volume," says Dr. Trench, "does not propose to note the peculiarities of single writers, but the general course of the language." Yet, in numerous instances, it transgresses this ill-expressed programme. At the same time it often fails to record, where record of them would have been apposite, obsolete senses, once widely current, of words now in vogue. To close these remarks, let us consider, as sufficiently exemplifying the defect here named, the verb *discover*. In Psalm xxix. 9, *discover* denotes "strip," though Dr. Trench defines it by "uncover"; a meaning which, however, it bears in Micah i. 6, etc., unnoticed by him, as likewise are Isaiah xxii. 8, etc., where it signifies "strip off," "remove." *Discover*, as, till very recently, one with "disclose," "reveal," he was warranted in passing by; but that he neglected to mention still another signification of the word, common enough in older authors, betrays, somewhat strikingly, the partial character of his researches. Its equivalence to "explore," "survey," "reconnoitre," "examine," "view," etc., as in the subjoined quotations, is here referred to:

"Sirs, go and ryde forth into the feldes, and *dyscouer* the countre euery way, and loke if ye se any thynge, and come hyder agayne."—Lord Berners, *Froissart* (1523), Vol. I., p. 245 (ed. 1812).

"In lyke maner as knyghtes doe by lande go before the bataylles, to *dyscouer* the countrey and enbushes." *Ibid.* (1525), Vol. II., p. 357.

"Furbisher, presently takyng vpon him, with his company, fully to *discouer* the same [*i. e.*, the Ilandes Moluccae]," etc. Richarde Willes, *Hist. of Travayle* (1577), fol. 231*r*.

"She laie a slepe upon her backe, with her handes cast over her hedde—as, for the most parte, yong women are wont to do—so that forthwith the yong Prince *discovered* her from toppe to toe." Barnabe Riche, *Farewell to Militarie Profession* (1581), p. 102 (ed. 1846).

"They perceived that, vpon Christmas daye, they had *discouered* along the coast three score and tenne leagues to the Eastward." Nicholas Lichefield, *Lopes de Castanheda's First Booke*, etc. (1582), fol. 10*v*.

"After him came also Sancho de Toar, who went to *discouer* Sofala, and made relation thereof to be a small Iland," etc. *Ibid.*, fol. 95*v*.

"To leuie souldiers . . ., and to send them to *discouer* the Ilands of the west." Robert Parke. *Mendoza's Hist. China* (1588), p. 137.

"It is not possible to declare the bredth and length thereof [*i. e.*, of Mexico]; for that vnto this day it is not all *discouered*." *Ibid.*, p. 316.

"Crauing libertie of Don Henry to *discouer* the Islands of Cape Verde, which was granted them." Rev. Richard Hakluyt, *Galvano's Discoveries of the World* (1601), p. 73 (ed. 1862).

"The gouernour . . . sent foorth his sonne, John Arias de Auila, . . . to *discouer* also by sea and by land." *Ibid.*, p. 127.

"Iovinus . . . sending out before a diligent scout-watch to *discover* the coasts, made haste," etc. Philemon Holland, *Ammianus Marcellinus* (1609), p. 305.

"He walk'd into the Island with Alcippus, Osmin, and Gartias. One part of it he *discover'd*, and, finding no other Inhabitants there but wilde beasts," etc. William Browne, *Polexander* (1647), Part III., Book IV., p. 125.

"Nor was Don John less active, but, a good while before day, moved from Namure, sending before . . . to *discover* the wood-land country, and possesse himself of advantageous places." Sir Robert Stapylton, *Strada* (1650), Books VIII.–IX., p. 50.

"I went out into the island, with my gun, to . . . *discover* the country." De Foe, *Robinson Crusoe* (1719), Vol. I., p. 84 (ed. 1840).

"God commanded Moses to send twelve Men to *discover* the Land of Canaan." Rev. Jeremy Collier, *Essays*, Part IV. (1722), p. 146 (ed. 1725).

"Having, therefore, in this manner rather *discovered* than subdued the southern parts of the island, Cæsar returned into Gaul, with his forces." Goldsmith, *History of England* (1771), Vol. I., p. 11.

"We set out from Peru for the river Maranham, to *discover* and settle there." Southey, *Expedition of Orsua* (1821), p. 129.

Of no less frequent occurrence than the *discover* seen in these passages were, for a long while, *discoverer*, *discovery*, and *undiscovered*, for "explorer," "exploration," and "unexplored."

Of Mr. Mayhew's 'Select Glossary' there have been several kindred precursors, meritorious in different degrees, the most noticeable among them being Dr. Aldis Wright's 'Bible Word-book.' Still, as possessing features of its own, it is by no means superfluous. Clearness, brevity, and critical scholarship distinguish it throughout. The extent to which the Bible revisers of 1611 injudiciously thought fit, by copying from their forerunners, to entail on after-ages the perplexity attaching to archaic phraseology, is distinctly brought out in its pages; and its bringing this out constitutes its leading differentia.

THREE NOVELS.

Dr. LeBaron and His Daughters: A Story of the Old Colony. By Jane G. Austin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Martha Corey: A Tale of the Salem Witchcraft. By Constance Goddard DuBois. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

Walford. By Ellen Olney Kirk. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MRS. AUSTIN has evidently met with the fate that often overtakes the too eager seeker after buried literary treasure. In her last unearthing of Old Colony chronicles she has called up a multitude of spirits which she has not had the power to marshal into order. The story of 'Dr. LeBaron and his Daughters' will doubtless be interesting to the comparatively small number to whom the book is dedicated—"the kith and kin of the name and lineage of LeBaron"; but it is lacking in the qualities necessary to maintain the interest of the general reader. The figures crowd upon and jostle one another, appearing and disappearing in a rapidly shifting panorama, and presenting confusing genealogical complications that are a weariness to the spirit of any but the most untiring of local antiquarians. The Doctor himself stands out with a certain distinctness, due, however, to the man's inherent qualities rather than to the literary ability of the author. Faults of style abound, unpardonable in an author of Mrs. Austin's experience; besides grammatical inaccuracies, there are passages that irresistibly provoke a smile where no humor was intended, while the humor is often clumsy when it is not trivial. For example, we read:

"But in 1775, the First Church, still orthodox in name and tenets, assembled itself beneath its hundred-foot-high spire with a gilded weather-cock on top, and, muffled in great-coats, cloaks, shawls, and furs, for no sybarite had as yet suggested fires in a meeting-house, prepared itself to listen with a divided mind to Parson Robbins's eloquence."

The occasional strong passages give evidence that, with more care in the selection and use of material, we might have had a clear page of living history instead of this blurred, confused picture, the manifest work of a careless, unsteady hand.

By no means lacking in vigor is the romance of 'Martha Corey,' one of the victims of the Salem witchcraft delusion. The tale begins in the mother country, where live the actors with whom the fatal thread of Martha Corey's life is interwoven. The daughter of an impecunious Earl, whose hand has been promised to the son of a wealthy London wine merchant, to cancel a heavy money obligation; the hero himself, a youth who has early discovered the hollowness of the world; the typical villain, nephew of the Earl and madly in love with his cousin; his female accomplice, "born with an obliquity of moral perception," ward of the wine merchant and in love with the son—these plot and counterplot, weaving the thread of destiny that is to entangle innocent people on the other side of the Atlantic. There is some novelty in the daughter of an Earl going alone to a new country and achieving local distinction as cook in a public inn, but the impetuous action of the story very naturally takes her there and, at length, into the friendly shelter of Martha Corey's household just as the first cloud of the witchcraft tempest, no bigger than a man's hand, is seen on the horizon. Martha Corey, joyous, independent, and walking by inner light, is a character against whom the spirit of the times in which she lived would naturally be opposed. It would seem, however, as if the Rev. Mr. Parris had already enough to answer for in the terrible results arising from his religious fanaticism, the flame of which was fed, so history hints, by personal malice; but in this story he is dyed a still deeper black by being made the purloiner of the private papers of a chance travelling companion merely to obtain temporary power over a stranger. The author has evidently the best of intentions, for as far as possible she liberally rewards the virtuous and punishes the guilty; but in dealing with hard facts of history one is obliged to resign the happy position of holder of the scales of justice. The style is somewhat amateurish, but vigor of plot and fertility of incident save it from being commonplace.

An involuntary recognition of kinship with the men and women portrayed in a character-study is instant testimony to the presence of the glow and warmth of life. Without this radiating power such a study is a more or less ingenious piece of mechanism. It would hardly be fair, perhaps, to pronounce 'Walford' a mechanical piece of work, yet through all its movement there is always a suspicion of outward rather than inward impetus. In spite of superabundant activity, the figure of one of

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the heroines (there are two sisters) fails to give us a sense of vitality. Beautiful, and with a decided philanthropic bias, which ample means allow her to follow, she has many admirers of both sexes who tell us of her ardent desire to ameliorate suffering in every form; but although we are present at her ministrations, we are not stirred by so much as a throb of responsive sympathy. Perhaps the author dimly felt this and allowed her to fall into the vulgarism of a quasi-engagement to the odious mill superintendent in order to give her a touch of nature. The sister awakens sympathy and interest because of the sudden and mysterious loss of her only child; but the reader's painful sense of her having married the wrong man is not mitigated by the clumsy manner in which he is disposed of to make room, after a decorous period, for the friend of her girlhood. The plot, though well worn, does good service by the introduction of fresh incident, but the literary substance of strikes has been already hammered into such thinness that it will hardly bear working over without the addition of new material.

The Development of Africa. By Arthur Silva White. London: George Philip & Son. 1890. 1 vol., 8vo.

MR. WHITE has treated what is properly a scientific subject in a strictly scientific manner, and has put together in logical sequence and connection all that is accurately known of the Continent of Africa. The work is so full of facts, and contains so great a mass of details, that anything like an exhaustive notice of it within reasonable limits would be impossible. With all its conciseness, however, the book is very interesting, and after the wearisome petty details in which most travellers indulge, it is refreshing to find that the gold has at last been separated from the mighty mass of sand. In the author's own language, his plan has been to build up Africa under the eyes of the reader, and to give complete pictures of the continent by dealing successively with the various aspects under which it is known in Europe. An admirable series of maps by Mr. E. G. Ravenstein accompanies the volume. Each map is a well-repaying study, and brings vividly to mind the familiar lines of Horace—

"Segnius irritant animos demissa per aurem
Quam quæ sunt oculis subjecta fidelibus."

Mr. White gives us at first a bird's-eye view of the continent, embracing its geology and characteristic features and illustrated by three maps. The geology we may omit as not particularly interesting; the physical characters are briefly as follows. Dry land occupies the greater portion of the continental plateau, while the shore line is almost without indentations. From the surrounding seas the continent rises terrace upon terrace, and the neighboring island of Madagascar, formerly part of the continent, exhibits the same structure. A narrow coast line from 100 to 300 miles in breadth, and not more than about 600 feet in elevation, encircles the greater part of the continent, the mean altitude of which is about 2,000 feet. Kenia, Kilima-njaro, and Ruwenzori are the highest mountains, each reaching a height of about 19,000 feet. The great drainage areas are the Atlantic, the Mediterranean, and the Indian Ocean. The inland drainage areas are the Sahara, the Kalahari Desert, and Eastern Abyssinia, of which the first is by far the most extensive. The political settlement of Africa has coincided with the ocean drainage areas, as the inland areas are practically uninhabited. Where the great rivers break through the plateaus their beds are filled with rocks, and navigation is consequently obstructed at short distances from their mouths.

Mr. White devotes his second chapter to the African lakes, rivers, and mountains, in great but very interesting detail. We have next a chapter on climate and cognate phenomena, including the fauna and flora of the continent. From this we extract what will perhaps be of general interest—the account of the great desert of Sahara, which is not, as commonly supposed, a level expanse of sand:

"The true desert is where, in this vast plateau, the dunes lie heaped up and murmur like the waves of the sea; where animal life, if it exist at all, assumes the protective color of the sand; where there are no birds, no trees, no flowers; 'the sky without clouds, the sands without shadow'; 'the region of blind forces of heat and wind.' Only about one-ninth of the Sahara is covered with sand; the remainder consists of mountains and rocks, steppes and oases. In the high-lying districts the valleys are covered with trees and are fairly habitable; and in the Arabian desert to the east a luxuriant vegetation exists in the river valleys. . . . This is what the Sahara is not unlike in fine weather, but when a sand-storm occurs, or when the suffocating hot winds blow, then it is a region unfit for man or beast."

A chapter on the indigenous population follows. Mr. Ravenstein, after a very careful calculation, estimates the population of Africa at only 127,038,370, and gives an interesting and valuable table of the areas and populations of the different European possessions. The six indigenous races are the Semites, Hamites, and Fulahs, with curly hair; negroes and Bantu, with woolly or fleecy hair; and Hottentots, with woolly hair growing in tufts. To these we must add the Malayo-Polynesian family in Madagascar. The geographical distribution of each race is given, and is quite accurately known. The whole chapter is full of interest, and amounts almost to a treatise.

Chapter v. is devoted to Islam and Christianity. Our author sums up the advance of the two religions very pithily: "Islam or Arab influence advances with the sword in one hand and the Koran in the other, as it appears to us. Christianity or European influence advances with the sword or paper treaties in one hand, and the Bible or a case of gin in the other, as it appears to the native mind. It is no use quarrelling with the comparison; it is a just and faithful one." The greater part of northern Africa is and has for more than 1,200 years been Mohammedan. Christianity has begun at the southern extremity of the continent, mainly at least, and is gradually advancing towards the equator, where, perhaps, the two religions are destined to come in contact for the final struggle. Of course there are isolated Christian communities north of the equator and similar Mohammedan communities to the south. The opinions of travellers as to the influence of Mohammedanism in elevating the negro are divided. The weight of evidence appears to us to be in favor of a decided influence for good. Mr. White states the case very impartially, but seems to lean rather towards the views of Lenz and those who regard Islam as decidedly injurious to mental growth.

The much-vexed subject of the traffic in slaves forms another monograph, not, perhaps, adding much to our knowledge, but emphasizing the frightful details. Our author suggests the establishment of firm bases at different points on the coast connected by chains of settlements across the continent; and an organized system of native police under European officers, with gunboats on the great lakes, which are intersected almost at right angles by the eastern slave routes. Of course, joint action of all the European Powers would be necessary, but the climate and the heavy expense would be serious obstacles.

An excellent historical sketch of the progress of African exploration and discovery follows. It is too detailed to permit of special notice in this place, but forms a most convenient work of reference. The subject of the commercial resources of the Continent is next in order, and naturally is discussed at much length. The ivory question alone is one of great importance, since ivory is almost the sole cause of the slave trade. Considering the enormous loss of human life which the traffic entails, it is surprising to find that the value of the annual export of ivory, according to Westendarp, is only seven or eight millions of pounds sterling. It is estimated that about 65,000 elephants are killed annually. The animals are forsaking the coasts for the interior, and will probably be extinct in another century or two. An idea of the ruin produced by the liquor traffic may be obtained from the fact that from 1883 to the end of 1887 more than 30,000,000 gallons of spirits were imported into Africa. An earnest effort was made at the Berlin Conference in 1885 to put a stop to the importation, but it was thwarted by interested parties. All European Powers take part in the trade.

A survey of European domination forms the subject of another chapter, and this is followed by one on the kindred subject of political partition. The author shows how the Continent is being divided into "protectorates" and "spheres of influence"—diplomatic euphuisms for wholesale robberies. The present political status is best shown by the excellent map. The general result is, that south of the equator the whole continent has been divided among European Powers, but north of the equator the boundaries are nearly all unsettled. Pagan Africa is now European, while Mohammedan Africa is Arab. Mr. White concludes his work with an excellent general summary of the principles underlying the development of Africa along natural lines. We heartily recommend the book as thoroughly readable, and as a conscientious and painstaking compilation of facts which to thoughtful minds are full of interest, even if often painful and seldom inspiring well-grounded hopes for the future.

Cardinal Newman. By Richard H. Hutton. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

WITHOUT the express avowal that this book was undergoing its last revision in the proofs when Cardinal Newman died, the author's name would have saved it from a suspicion that it is one of those books hastily constructed to economize the interest in a distinguished person immediately following his death. We had had an earnest of its quality in Mr. Hutton's essay upon Newman, which was republished with others in this country a few years ago. Indeed, this volume, written, it appears, as one of a series of "Religious Leaders," is hardly more than an expansion of that essay. Of biographical detail it has the merest thread, only enough on which to string a series of criticisms of Newman's writings in the order of their publication. No finer critical faculty could have been brought to the interpretation of Newman's strange experience, and there is no such painful contrast of the style of subject and biographer as there must generally be when Newman is the theme. Mr. Hutton's habitual style is good enough to spare the haunting echoes of Martineau's that are sometimes here—a tribute to the early teacher whose teachings he is anxious to forget. That now and then his hand is subdued to what it works in is only what we should expect, and there are passages

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almost as Newmanish as Newman's own, while everywhere there is a choice of words and a felicity of phrase that are perfection in their kind.

A peculiar interest attaches to Mr. Hutton's book because of the nature of his own religious experience and the ardent, while still imperfect, sympathy that he brings to Newman's progress from the Church of England to the Church of Rome. The son of a Unitarian clergyman, and in his youth a protégé and pupil of Martineau, he had a progress or regression of his own quite as extensive as that of Newman, which should qualify him to appreciate the changes Newman underwent. But his sympathy is much more positive than could arise from such a source. It is the sympathy of one who has gone far on Newman's way from Anglicanism to Rome; so far, that we find ourselves wondering why he did not go farther, and whether, even now, it is too late for him to go the remainder of the way. The remainder is much less than the distance Newman traversed, after the condemnation of Tract 90 in 1841, to his submission to Rome in 1845. There is some adverse criticism of Newman and a good deal of Rome, but of sympathy and approval there is much more, with sometimes, apparently, the irritation of a man who maintains himself in a position of unstable equilibrium by a painful effort of the will. If we are not greatly mistaken, the reader will often forget the sufferings of Newman, now fifty years remote, in his sympathy with those of the victim who is still stretched upon the rack of theological uncertainty.

No part of Mr. Hutton's book was less required than the argument for Newman's genuineness and greatness with which the opening chapter is taken up. The argument is based on the singleness and steadfastness with which he devoted himself to a noble aim, and on the consecration of a literary talent of the highest order to the original purpose of his life. In the course of the argument Mr. Hutton takes Mr. Huxley to task with some asperity for his suggestion that a Primer of Infidelity could easily be made from two or three of Newman's works. Mr. Hutton is so much troubled by this suggestion and the coördinate belief of many that Newman was fundamentally skeptical, and only believed because he was resolved to do so, that he returns to the matter in his fifth chapter, which is given up to it entirely. Mr. Hutton utterly rejects such a construction, and he makes out at least a plausible showing for the view that it was not his own but others' difficulties which he was endeavoring to overcome. So much seems to be undoubtedly true so far as natural religion was concerned, but that so many have derived a contrary impression of his belief in revealed religi n and the Church cannot, we think, be quite unwarranted. In Mr. Hutton's contention with Huxley in chapter v., the utterly unscientific character of his own thinking gives a naïve absurdity to some of his remarks. That we have not exaggerated Mr. Hutton's approximation to the Cardinal's position is evident from the terms in which that position is disclaimed. He "cannot adopt for himself his [Newman's] later conception of the Church of Christ, *hardly even* that earlier conception *which led so inevitably to the latter*." The italics are ours.

In Newman's first considerable work, 'Arians of the Fourth Century,' there was a "full expression of his confidence that dogma is the backbone of religion." Mr. Hutton gently insinuates that he made too much of dogma, or, at least, that he did not sufficiently distinguish between the intellectual conceptions implied in Revelation and the life and character which it reveals. Here and elsewhere we have something of that fluffiness which we owe to the influence of Maurice upon Mr. Hutton's mind, an admirable device for those who would fain avoid clear thinking and believe some things and not believe them at the same time. He finds the style of 'The Arians' dry almost to grittiness, and contends that Newman's greatness of style was largely a development of his Roman Catholic period. This, however, if true at all, is only true of his major works, not of his sermons. Mr. Hutton would have us believe that it is equally true of his sermons; but his quotations are convincing that he goes too far.

The chapter on "Hurrell Froude and the Mediterranean Voyage" gives a more agreeable impression of Froude than we get from Newman's 'History of His Opinions.' It is very interesting that it was Froude, the more Roman of the two in advance, who came back to England less impressed by what he had seen in Italy, and better satisfied with the Church at home—this, in part, because he was more an English Tory than he was anything else. Mr. Hutton finds much of Froude's thought in Newman's language in the 'Lyra Apostolica,' written upon the voyage, and remarks the fact that the various scenes had no suggestions of pagan art, or poetry, or history for Newman's mind. Off Ithaca he wrote a poem "On the Death of Moses," and off Zante one on the Greek Fathers, and so on. Newman's poems are rated highly, Mr. Hutton saying of the poem comparing the Jewish race to Œdipus that Æschylus would have been proud to have written it if he had lived again in our time, while the "Dream of Gerontius," which Newman dropped into his waste-basket after he had written it, he cannot praise enough.

In the chapter "Newman at St. Mary's," subject and critic are at their best, for it brings out that ethical and spiritual quality of Newman's mind which transcends all theological and ecclesiastical differences, and comes home to all men who are in temptation or in sin. Nevertheless, it was a St. Mary's sermon, on the wisdom of the serpent and the harmlessness of the dove, on which Kingsley founded his charge of Newman's indifference to truth, whence came the 'Apologia' in reply. Mr. Hutton's defence brings out the dangerous side of Newman's teaching. Coming to "Advancing Estrangements" and Tract 90, Mr. Hutton flatly contradicts Newman's assertion that Mr. Oakeley was the head of the new Oxford school that pushed the founders of the movement from their seats. It was, he says, George William Ward, and there are no more entertaining pages in his book than those describing this troublesome spirit. It is a serious charge that Newman gave out as history "facts which had not gone through the form of taking place," because he had been alienated from Ward. It was the pestering of Ward and others possessed by a conviction of the anti-Roman character of the articles, that compelled Newman to write Tract 90, the least characteristic of his writings, in Mr. Hutton's opinion, giving "a very false impression of his mind and genius." "It was very far, indeed, from an insincere document," but it "took refuge behind the ambiguities of a creed artfully devised to suit the views of two very distinct parties whose drift was at bottom wholly irreconcilable."

Newman's experience was very tragical in the years between Tract 90 and his submission to Rome, to whom through all this time he was theoretically drawn, while practically repelled; held by personal ties, and alienated by an illogical position. 'The Development of Christian Doctrine' was written while he was already a Romanist in his heart. Mr. Hutton describes it as "full of devout subtlety," and criticises it more elaborately than any other writing, and less satisfactorily. Sometimes, however, he strikes home, as in reply to Newman's making the partial and local degeneracy of the Church, without prejudice to the authority of the Bishop of Rome, a "note" of its divinity. Here Mr. Hutton compares him to the German monk who argued "that no church not divinely sustained could survive such corruptions."

Only 60 pages out of 251 in Mr. Hutton's book are given to Newman's Roman Catholic years, though they were almost exactly half of the whole eighty-nine. The astonishing sermons on "The Glories of Mary" read as if Newman had resolved to outdo his new companions in the grossness of his superstition. The "Lectures on Anglican Difficulties" were heard by Mr. Hutton when they were first delivered, and he gives an eloquent description of their effect upon his own mind. Into his criticism of Newman's subsequent writings we cannot follow him. It is always interesting and suggestive, if it is nothing more. One sentence hits the white as, perhaps, no other in the book: "Whatever he thought that he 'ought' to believe, he has always found the means, not only to believe, but to interpret to himself with a unique vivacity and intensity of conception." All too briefly Mr. Hutton sketches Newman's relation to the decree of Papal infallibility. In a private letter to his bishop he called those who favored it in England "an aggressive, insolent faction," though personally it had for him no difficulties whatever. But when Pius IX. was succeeded by Leo XIII. in 1878, Newman's "minimizing" view of the Vatican decree came to the front and he was made a Cardinal in token of the change.

Power through Repose. By Annie Payson Call. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1891. 12mo, pp. 169.

AMERICANS who have been abroad are always struck on their return to their native land by the over-expressiveness of their countrymen's faces, both while talking and in would-be repose. The brow and eyes are contracted, the mouth screwed up or down or to one side; an expression of subdued agony or anxiety, or else a smile so intense as to squeeze all further possibilities out of the countenance. In short, a species of contortionism, of which the aggregate effect is very strong and unexpected, makes our whole nation look odd and off its balance, until we get once more accustomed to the phenomenon. Nowhere in this country do we get the cod-fish eye, the slab-like cheek, the tranquil voice, which give to the population of England so massive a look of reserved power.

Miss Call is a lady who, having been struck by the abnormality in us of this constant tension of so many muscles not in use, has taken the matter to heart and studied it in all its ramifications, and who, after much practical experience, gives a sketch in this charming little volume of the ways in which we may train ourselves out of the vicious habit, and depicts the wide-spreading benefits which thereupon accrue. The evil does not affect merely the face: all the muscles of the body take part in the habitual over-contraction; so that, having learned first to contract our muscles in order to do things, we must again voluntarily study how to relax those which

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are not needed for the end in view. And not only when working or acting, according to Miss Call, but when sitting, when lying down, when thinking, even when sleeping, is there in most of us an inveterate inward tension which we never let go and which makes complete repose an impossibility.

This signifies much more than a material waste of tissue which adds itself to the total wear and tear of the day, for its remoter reflex effects may, in certain temperaments, be formidable and widespread. A perfectly calm and placid tone of mind is out of the question with a system that is never completely relaxed, but always quivering with residual and incipient contractions. Such a person never rests with his whole weight on his chair. His feet still press the ground, half ready to rise, his fingers convulsively clutch the chair's arms or work at each other. On the pillow the neck muscles still are rigid. A certain inward breathlessness, vague expectancy, dispersion of the attention, and worry are the inevitable results of such muscular habits as these. We are all sinners. If the reader's attention has never been called to the matter before, he will be little less than astounded to find how twisted up his muscles are. Let him relax each contracted point as he notices it, and he will find layer after layer of new contractions appearing, which were masked until the stronger ones gave way. Only after a long series of muscles have been "let go" is complete sedateness attained; and the perfect calm of it is then likely to seem a new experience of bliss.

Miss Call's merit is to have taken this important truth *au grand sérieux*, and to have worked at it with a zeal which some might almost deem fanatical. According to her, there is hardly anything which systematic training in relaxation will not accomplish for certain persons. It will regenerate their nervous strength, their temper, their ability to attend, their speech, their powers of effective work in every direction, and of course their cheerfulness, their gait, and grace of presence. It is probable that Miss Call's claims are in no wise overstated for a certain class of persons. The sedative effect of habitual relaxation does "make them over again." What the *rationale* of these remote effects may be is another matter. Probably Miss Call takes too simple a view of it when she ascribes it all to physiological rest. It is something more psychological than that. Take this case:

"A lady who suffered very much from having her feelings hurt came to me for advice. I told her whenever anything was said to wound her at once to *imagine her legs heavy*—that relaxed her muscles, freed her nerves, and relieved the tension caused by her sensitive feelings. The cure seemed to her wonderful" (p. 68). Again, "when you begin to *worry*, think your legs heavy. Your friends will appreciate the relief more than you do, and will gain as you gain" (p. 71).

It seems clear enough that in cases like this the relaxing of the leg muscles is only a means of redistributing the attention and changing the whole emotional tone and attitude.

We regret to have no space for other extracts which might sound less eccentric than these. The book is short, and written with a beautiful simplicity and sincerity. It combines unusual knowledge of human nature with unusual depth of sympathy with human needs. It should become widely known; and a philanthropist with some surplus income might do a much worse thing than to distribute it widely among the teachers of the land.

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